

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Articles in this number review the developments in the teaching of the social studies in secondary schools during the last twenty years.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
The Trend in Social Studies, by Charles A. Beard - - -	369
Efforts Toward Reorganization, by Prof. Edgar Dawson - -	372
Twenty Years of Civics, by Prof. Howard C. Hill - - -	375
Thirteen Years of Problems of American Democracy in the Senior High School, by Prof. R. M. Tryon - - -	380
A New Viewpoint in Economics, by Prof. Leverett S. Lyon -	383
Propaganda in Teaching the Social Studies, by Prof. Bessie L. Pierce	387
Curricular Experimentation in the Social Studies, by Howard E. Wilson - - - - -	390
Development of the World History Course, by Prof. J. Lynn Barnard	395
The Historical Novel as an Aid in the Teaching of the Social Studies, by A. O. Roorbach - - - -	396
Recent Tendencies in the Field of Geography, by Prof. M. E. Branom	399
The History of Sociology in the High School, by Grace E. Hotchkiss	402
Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, by W. G. Kimmel, 404; Notes on Periodical Literature, by G. B. Richards, 406; Book Reviews, edited by Profs. H. J. Carman and J. Bartlett Brebner, 407; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 409; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 413.	

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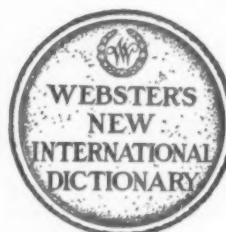
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The Historical Outlook

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER, 1929

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30 cents a copy.

An Appreciation

Albert E. McKinley founded the History Teachers' Magazine in 1909. For twenty years he has published every available manuscript useful to the teacher of history, and he has stimulated the writing of a large proportion of these manuscripts.

He has founded an institution which is the lengthening shadow of one man; a monument to his energy, self-sacrifice, and thought for the future. As long as educational archives contain materials for the history teacher, his work will stand imperishable in those archives. This heavy task has been performed in time snatched from his busy life as a college dean, a professor of history, and an active, public-spirited citizen.

Correspondence with persons in all parts of the country has brought forth many expressions of appreciation and good-will, and wishes that the anniversary might be suitably celebrated. This number of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK might have been filled with letters of gratitude to its editor.

EDGAR DAWSON.

The undersigned, acting Editor of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK during the absence from Philadelphia of Dr. McKinley, is glad to take advantage of the opportunity to print the foregoing tribute from Dr. Edgar Dawson, for many years Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies.

CHARLES A. COULOMB.

The Trend in Social Studies*

BY CHARLES A. BEARD

I.

On my shelves stands an old book from which I derived my instruction in citizenship and social studies at school about forty years ago: W. H. Venable's *School History of the United States*. It is a volume of two hundred and fifty pages. Of this number, one hundred and thirty-three are devoted to the period closing with the War of Independence; sixty-five pages more bring the story down to the Civil War; forty-one pages describe the battles of that conflict; the remaining pages deal with miscellaneous events between the death of Lincoln and 1878. About four-fifths of the book are concerned with political and military affairs. The campaigns and battles of the Civil War fill almost every inch of the space given to that struggle. The author regretfully informs his little readers that the limits of his volume will not permit him to mention "hundreds of the minor battles and skirmishes that took place during the Great Civil War," and advises them to fill in the details from the more extended histories. Invention, industry, science, and the arts are granted the barest mention. At the close is the following philosophic reflection: "The student who has studied thoughtfully the annals of the past will be able to

judge concerning the significance of present events and tendencies. He will be able to enter into the spirit of his times and to take an intelligent interest in politics, society, and civilization." But a caution is added: the student "should supplement the knowledge already acquired by reading the most important current news of the day." With some such heavy educational equipment most of the boys and girls of my community passed out into the busy world to wrestle with the problems of American citizenship.

But as I review the tendencies and events of the past forty years, concerning the significance of which I was thus prepared by my schoolbook to judge, I confess to finding in this volume little enlightenment respecting them. Among the matters in which I was thus prepared to "take an intelligent interest" may be listed the following themes that have furnished issues for the political battles of two score years: civil service reform, regulation of railways, control of trusts, income tax, free silver, injunctions in labor disputes, questions coming under the head of "imperialism," popular election of senators, conservation of natural resources, parcel post, postal savings banks, valuation of railways, woman suffrage, the perplexities of the World War, the League of Nations, farm relief, Panama Canal tolls, relations with Mexico, the rise of the United States to the position of the first military power in point of expenditures for preparedness,

* Address before Social Science Section of the Michigan Educational Association, October 25, 1929.

the renunciation of war, restriction of immigration, and limitation of armaments. This list, partial as it is, leaves out of the picture all the complicated questions of state and municipal government in which I have been supposed to take "an intelligent interest"—concerning which my youthful historical studies prepared me "to judge." Yet on a careful review of my early text I find no clue at all to the bare possibility that any such issues would arise and, with all due respect to my hopeful author, no light whatever on any of them or on any of the intellectual methods to be employed in forming a judgment respecting them.

For about twenty of the intervening years, historians of Venable's type continued to monopolize most of the instruction in the schools, which may be placed under the head of "social studies," studies dealing with the manifold relations of life, civic, industrial, religious, educational, recreational, and artistic. It is true that some information concerning these matters crept into the schools through the back doors of languages, literature, and geography, but it was usually incidental and was not handled by teachers with special competence or training in social studies. All will recall either from memory or reading the famous plan of the historians for a four-year course in their favorite subject: two years to Europe, one year to England, and one to the United States, with some dry facts about the Constitution tacked in, to make a kind of civic side show.

And the history which they proposed to give us was mainly concerned with wars, diplomacy, and politics. The first American high school book containing a chapter on the immense changes in human life brought about by the steam engine and machinery appeared in 1908. Industry, urban life, economic questions, the arts, and science were either passed over in silence or treated as dead things belonging to a dead past or covered casually as incidental rather than fundamental. If anyone wishes a shock in pedagogy, let him take a high school history of the United States published in 1900 and compare it with any bare record of events since that year and especially with the tables of contents of our best current magazines. Then he will see how boys and girls at the opening of the century were "prepared" for what happened.

II.

While the historians were busy with politics, battles, and diplomacy, a number of things were going on in the outside world and in other departments of human knowledge. Our social and international life was being transformed by bewildering inventions, by significant legislation, by industrial activities. New branches of learning were appearing in our colleges and universities—economics, sociology, anthropology, and political science. At length the historical monopoly over social studies was broken in our institutions of higher learning. The young men and women who studied there in preparation for teaching in the schools discovered new and amazing ideas and facts not mentioned in the history books. They were no longer satisfied with the past; they became interested in the living present, in affairs and ways of life not

mentioned by the historians. When they went out to teach they carried with them the widened interest awakened by these new studies. They were no longer content to allow boys and girls to go out of the elementary and high schools without any inkling of the great departments of knowledge outside of the history books. Thus a ferment began among teachers and the makers of study programs. At last it was recognized that not all the boys and girls were to be statesmen, diplomats, and generals, that, on the contrary, most of their waking hours were to be devoted to activities having little relation with politics, diplomacy, or war. Human beings live not by election statistics and battles alone, but also by industry, by homekeeping, by co-operation with their fellows, by all the arts of love, and joy, and admiration—as Ruskin put it. In a democracy the schools simply cannot ignore the demands of life, keep aloof from its pressing problems of choice and conduct.

In these circumstances subjects dealing with life in community, State, nation, and the world began to creep into the schools. At first civics began to widen a little. It pressed upon history and finally insisted on getting a divorce. But as often happens, divorce did not bring contentment. Once it was apparently thought that a student learned something important when he discovered that the President of the United States is elected by electors as prescribed by the Constitution and enjoys a four-year term. But then some brilliant wit discovered that in reality the presidential electors choose only from among certain persons nominated by political parties. The Constitution said nothing about it, but nevertheless it appeared to be a fact. It was impossible to keep the disclosure out of the civics books. Once this barrier was down, disturbing questions were asked. What is a political party? Why do parties arise? How are they organized? Who pays their bills? How does a citizen become a member of a party? How do parties operate at elections? So civics took in more territory—the organization and methods of parties. But the extending process could not be stopped here. Some wit was moved to ask: What are the issues that divide parties? An inquiry revealed that they rose out of differences of opinion about economic affairs, moral ideas, theories concerning the whole duty of man. Before long all the retaining walls of a water-tight civics gave way and the subject spread out in a quest for deeper and more fundamental truth.

Meanwhile Economics appeared on the scene, demanding a hearing in the schools. Most of the people, its sponsors alleged, live by working at some trade, calling, or profession, and if they do not know anything about railways, industry, production, distribution, wealth, capital, wages, interest, profits, taxation, and kindred matters, they must work blindly and ignorantly. After many wordy battles, Economics found a place in the high school scheme. Before it had settled down to enjoy its victory, Sociology put in a plea. Its spokesman admitted that man is a

political and an economic animal, but added that he is a member of a family, a community, a church, and many associations that are not primarily concerned with politics or money-making. They conceded that their subject was vague and full of difficulties, and yet they put up such a powerful argument that they won a place for it in the crowded high school curriculum. In the process History was materially reduced in compass. The separate course in English history disappeared almost entirely. In many high schools European history was compressed from two years to one. A diagram of the space occupied by these respective subjects during the past twenty years shows a progressive diminution of history and a steady expansion of other social studies. The historians or perhaps we had better say the makers of textbooks are alarmed.

III.

When the historians, economists, and sociologists recovered from the effects of their wordy battles and began to settle down to work together they found that they really had more community of interest than difference of opinion. The wisest among them discovered that they were not teaching separate subjects, but aspects of the same thing—the effort of mankind to become civilized. Those who have put aside their professional pride and fixed their minds on their pupils and the world of struggle, sacrifice, and perplexities in which their pupils must live have come to see that these apparently divergent themes have one grand object, namely, to throw light on the way of life in which the boys and girls must walk.

Hence the tendency to speak of them all as one group, called for convenience “social studies.” The term is not entirely happy. The boundaries of the field are indefinite. The subject-matter is difficult to determine. Methods of teaching and testing are under debate. Intangibles are numerous.

But amid all the fuss and feathers, there is substance, there is reality, in social studies. The grave public responsibilities which they are designed to meet, in some measure at least, cannot be evaded. It might be easier to run from them and take refuge in the tangibilities of Latin conjugation and the multiplication table, but the spirit of the age, the necessities of the age, will not allow us that refuge. Moreover the American Historical Association now has a committee composed of representatives of all disciplines engaged in exploring the subject, defining its objectives, collating methods of instruction, and preparing a report which ought to mark a new epoch in the intellectual history of our schools and our country. If it fails the task will be taken up by others more competent.

IV.

But it will be said that the growth of social studies places on teachers an impossible burden, it compels them to deal with controversial questions. This is true. It is a condition, not a theory that confronts them. And as they grope their way amid the perplexities involved in their duties, they find themselves in a Wonderland more bewildering than that fairy

realm explored by Alice. In every phase of their work they encounter propaganda, open or secret. With the former they can deal fairly and intelligently. Democracy is founded on propaganda, on the right of citizens to expound their ideas and convictions and to appeal to fellow citizens for support.

But the ramifications of secret propaganda, arising from interested sources, present difficulties which, of necessity, must put teachers of social studies constantly on their guard. Fortunately for them important studies are being made of the methods of the secret propagandists, so that teachers may know what to expect in dealing with the problems of scientific instruction in social affairs. For example, they will find in Chapter V of the volume entitled *Electrical Utilities*, edited by Dr. W. E. Mosher, a survey of the technique and agencies employed by certain great private interests to introduce into the schools their notions of policy.

Let us briefly review the evidence produced by the inquiry of the Federal Trade Commission into the propaganda activities of these utility corporations. In the first place they attacked the textbooks in civics and economics offered to teachers by writers and publishers. They branded as “bad” and “unfair” the books which did not meet their propaganda requirements—books by some of the outstanding authorities in the United States. They approached publishers and authors and succeeded in inducing some of them to make changes suitable to their purposes. Owing to their power with school boards and editors, they were in a strategic position to force action.

Hence when teachers take up a textbook in civics or economics, they do not know to what extent vital parts of it have been doctored to suit private parties who expect to make profits out of “educating” the public to take their views of governmental policy. If they choose a book which presents a fair and honest account of both sides of public utility problems they may find a superintendent or school board who will prevent its adoption. One distinguished school superintendent was ousted from his position merely because he recommended a certain book for use in his schools.

So much for the textbooks. Speakers are sent to address school children on public questions. They are often people of high standing who bear honorable names. Are they always disinterested? The recent utility investigation revealed the fact that the public utility interests in one of our great states, instead of coming openly and frankly to school authorities, operated through the state chamber of commerce in getting speakers before the schools. Here is an extract from a letter written by the propagandist in charge. “More recently,” he says “we have adopted the plan of having a third party organization make the arrangements with the schools. In strict confidence the [State] Chamber of Commerce handled it for us during the last summer. We, of course, paid the bill. We try to keep away from announcing the talk to have anything to do with public utilities—our

last talks being on Government and Business. In placing speakers before schools, the job is most complete when you make arrangements with the speaker, who should be an educator of the highest standing, well-known, and accepted throughout the State." Thus when teachers of the State in question listened to "educators of the highest standing" on Government and Business, they were listening to propagandists with secret retainers' fees in their pocketbooks. Perhaps, however, the speakers did not get their pay until they delivered the goods as ordered.

So much for direct influence on the schools. Now let the teachers of social studies turn to the newspapers for information. The recent investigation to which reference has been made showed that newspapers in many parts of the country had printed as news and information thousands of columns of materials prepared by the utility propagandists. In one State the amount of this stuff published, not as advertising, but as plain reading matter without any earmarks as to origin, was at least "60,000 column inches, or four hundred pages the size of the *Boston Herald*." This is not all. Scores of editorials, some in our greatest metropolitan newspapers, presumably presenting the unbiased opinion of the editors, were prepared by the same interested parties and appeared without any earmark as to source.

This is not all. Hundreds of pamphlets descend upon the schools. Recently the public was favored by a pamphlet entitled, "Under Benedict Arnold's Cloak," attacking, in the name of patriotism, citizens who did not favor engaging in a naval armament race with Great Britain. Owing to the courageous action of President Hoover, the United States Senate has this autumn unmasked the author of this pamphlet as a propagandist formerly on the pay-roll of three corporations that make profit out of building cruisers for the Government. It is true that they state that they

paid him merely as "an observer" and that they did not approve the pamphlet in question. But if they did not know that he was a propagandist while he was on their pay-roll, they did not know what was well-known to thousands of their informed fellow citizens.

These things are not cited here on the theory that the textbooks mentioned, the speeches made by "educators of the highest standing," the thousands of columns and scores of editorials, and the pamphlets circulated contained anything wrong as to fact or unsound in public policy. The books, articles, speeches, and pamphlets did, however, present only one side of several controversial questions on which intelligent and honest American citizens are divided. They were secretly financed by interested parties who, aside from other motives, expected to make money out of the triumph of the ideas expounded. They are cited as illustrations of the bewildering perplexities that beset teachers who try to do their duty by the whole people in their instruction in social studies. They are cited as proof that these teachers must study more widely, sharpen their wisdom, stand foursquare to all the winds that blow, and solemnly resolve that they will discharge their responsibility as they are given to see it in the best light of their age. They must have more and better training, more leisure for the pursuit of knowledge concerning their subjects, fewer hours of instruction, more time to study, and the larger salaries necessary to the continuous pursuit of advanced research. They are in a different position from that of a teacher of Latin or mathematics. They cannot master their subjects reasonably well and settle back to a ripe old age early in life. The subject-matter of their instruction is infinitely difficult and it is continually changing. If American democracy is to fulfill its high mission, then those who train its youth must be among the wisest, most fearless, and most highly trained men and women this broad land can furnish.

Efforts Toward Reorganization

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

Other papers in this issue describe in considerable detail the evolution of various aspects of the social studies in the secondary schools. Since the remaining space is limited, the present one will offer a brief outline of the development of opinion as to what the curriculum of the social studies ought to be. This opinion has to some extent influenced the organization of courses; it also reflects what has actually occurred. I am the more disposed to limit my discussion to this aspect of the general theme, because all that I could say has already been said much more in detail in the report of the History Inquiry (H. O., Vol. XV, No. 6).

The diagram to be found on page 374 is taken from a fuller one published in that report. The three columns selected for this paper present some notion of what was approved when the magazine was

founded in 1909, what was offered by the Committee on the Social Studies in 1916, and what the Second Committee of Eight offered in 1921 as a compromise between the then competing movements. It is impossible for anyone to describe the chaos that has developed in the last two decades in such a way as to give the reader a true notion of it; but, for those who have followed recent evolution, the committee reports will recall to memory some of the elements in the present chaos.

When the magazine was started, the discussion of the report of the Committee of Seven (1898) and of the reasons for the Committee of Five was active. Various differences of opinion were drawn into this discussion as the reader will find if he will turn to the first three volumes of the magazine. One party was much opposed to any disturbance of the growing

stabilization under the influence of the Committee of Seven; the other felt very sure that its recommendations ought to be amended at once. In the fourth volume, 1913, the Committee of the National Education Association comes out with its declaration of war or its declaration of independence of previous leadership.

In 1915, Vice-Principal J. R. Sutton, of the Oakland, California, High School, published a paper in which he asked the question, "Is it in the interest of history teaching in the schools that a fuller definition of the history requirement be made by the American Historical Association showing the essential points to be emphasized and those to be more lightly treated?" His answer was clearly in the negative; his argument was that it was undesirable to disturb the growing uniformity that was growing up under the influence of the Committee of Seven. In the same year, Professor Thomas H. Briggs said on page 120 of the report of the Commissioner of Education, "The evident, though not overwhelming, distribution of the so-called 'four blocks of history' manifests the influence of the report of the Committee of Seven."

Several well-defined causes took part in giving force to the arguments of those who remanded revision of the history program. The first of these in point of time was the growing self-consciousness of the social science guilds. One element in the Committee of Five had insisted upon and won some separation of civics from American History, giving to the former a clear two-fifths of the time in Grade 12. A committee of the Political Science Association published a formidable report through Macmillan, in 1916, on the Teaching of Government. A committee of the New England History Teachers Association had reported, also through Macmillan, giving an extended and detailed outline for the study of Civics, in 1910. While many learned economists and sociologists were disposed to discourage efforts to teach their subjects in the schools, fearing that untrained teachers would discredit them and waste the time of the pupils, textbook writers and publishers were not wanting who were convinced that civilization demanded more widely distributed knowledge of these subjects.

A second influence that supported the revisionists was the movement to reorganize the school system in the direction of the 6-3-3 plan. While the first junior high school seems to have been organized in 1909, the movement was for a long time more apparent in forensics than in practice; but it was clear that the determination to cut the time given to elementary education, apparent at least as far back as 1888, would have to be reckoned with. If Grades 7-9 were to be united in a new school of secondary education, it was manifest that some revision of all of the subject-matter curricula ought to be undertaken. Consequently, the National Education Association set up the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, which Briggs, in 1915, called the greatest single unifying force at that time.

This Commission appointed a number of curriculum committees, among them the Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education. The reader will note the new words used in the title of this committee—"social studies"—which became a watchword for those who stood in the left wing of the educational parliament. Among the members of the committee were James Harvey Robinson, author of "The New History" (1912); Arthur W. Dunn, protagonist for "Community Civics"; and J. L. Barnard, a former professor of Political Science, and champion of the "Problems of Democracy" course; all names which have given real force to the new movement, because of the fact that these, and other similar members of the committee, were not mere educational fadists.

In 1916, the committee published a report as Bulletin 28 of the Bureau of Education, and as No. 1 of Volume VIII of the magazine. 27,000 copies of the Bulletin were distributed. The report was not meant to be a final statement, but was issued for the purpose of provoking discussion and suggestion. Out of it grew the three courses—Community Civics, reorganized World History for Grade 10, and Problems of Democracy for Grade 12—which have in the last decade loomed large in curriculum-making. The World War interrupted the work of the committee and it never resumed. Consequently, these courses embarked on their careers entrusted to the tender mercies of textbook writers, who did wonderful things with them. Hardly any two books written for any of them show marked resemblance.

The Historical Association had rested its case and waited for its reports to stabilize history teaching; the Committee on Social Studies was killed by the war; the school system was being reorganized; the war had left a heritage of almost hysterical demand for quick education in citizenship; current events were put forward with becoming energy by magazines which soon sold hundreds of thousands of copies to school children; and chaos came. When statistics were collected by the History Inquiry, in 1923, it was found that about a third of the schools tended to follow the Historical Association reports; a second third tended toward the report of the Committee on Social Studies; and another third offered all possible varieties of compromises between the two offerings.

As soon as the World War closed one serious effort was made by historians to salvage the situation. "The Special Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools," afterwards called "The Second Committee of Eight," was set up by the National Board for Historical Service, a war-service agency which turned over to the committee the small residue of its funds. Adopted by the American Historical Association in 1918, this committee proceeded to round up the stray courses and try to make of them a unified curriculum. For reasons that are not apparent, the Association declined to authorize official publication of the committee's report which had already appeared in the March-June, 1921, issues of the magazine. Failing any kind of powerful backing, and lacking adequate funds to press its case, an en-

COMMITTEE PROPOSALS

GRADES	COMMITTEE OF EIGHT (1908)		(1911)	N E. A. COMMITTEE (1916)		SECOND COMMITTEE OF EIGHT (1921)	
I.	Pictures and Stories of Indian Life; and Teaching Centered On Public Holidays and Local History		THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL MOVEMENT, COMMUNITY CIVICS AND VOCATIONAL COURSES			MAKING OF THE COMMUNITY	Indian and Pioneer Life; Pictures and Stories of Different Habits of Life
II.							
III.	THREE-YEAR CYCLE	Pictures of Historical Scenes and Persons of Various Ages					THE MAKING OF THE UNITED STATES
IV.		Historical Scenes and Persons in Early American History		How Englishmen Became Americans 1607-1783			
V.		Historical Scenes and Persons in Later American History A Little Civics*		The United States 1783-1877			
VI.	THREE-YEAR CYCLE	World from Which Our Ancestors Came More Civics*			THE MAKING OF THE UNITED STATES	*United States Since 1877 How We Are Governed	
VII.		Early American History Still More Civics*				AMERICAN HISTORY IN ITS WORLD SETTING	The World Before 1607 Including Spain in America
VIII.		Later American History and Civics*					The World Since 1607 with Emphasis on Economic and Social History of the United States
IX.	COMMITTEE OF FIVE (1910)			*JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CYCLE	Political, Economic and Vocational Civics, with History Incidentally	AMERICAN HISTORY IN ITS WORLD SETTING	Community and National Activities Including Commercial Geography, Economic History and Civics
	Ancient History to 800†						
X.	English History With Continental Connections to 1760†						
XI.	Modern Europe With English Connections Since 1760†			*SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CYCLE	European History, With Oriental and English	THE MODERN WORLD	Progress Toward World Democracy Since 1650
			American History		Progress Toward Democracy in the United States With Foreign Contacts		
XII.	American History and Government,† Separately or Ratio of 3:2		*SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CYCLE	Problems of American Democracy		Social, Economic and Political Problems and Principles	
Notes	*This Civics is practically "Community Civics." †Economic, political and social.			*Various alternative arrangements suggested for both Cycles and a Curriculum for 8x4 Schools with European History in Grades IX and X.		*Half-year of each.	

tirely worthy effort had very little opportunity to secure a fair hearing.

In 1921 occurred two events that deserve mention. In February of that year the National Council for the Social Studies was organized. Its purpose was to unite in one association the teachers and scholars who were vitally interested in developing this field of teaching. While its membership has reached nearly to 2,000 its growth has missed the co-operation of some subject-matter specialists who have been unwilling to sink their particularistic interests in a single undertaking. While school administrators have been moving toward the composite courses recommended by the report of 1916 and more recent offerings by individuals, the specialists have in many cases stood firm for elementary courses in their own fields. For example, they do not like Problems of Democracy, but prefer separate courses in economics, government, and sociology. They look with suspicion on any form of general history, insisting that it must inevitably be superficial and confusing. But they offer no complete program of studies acceptable to those responsible for the administration of education in the schools.

The other event, in 1921, was the effort of the Commonwealth Fund to launch a thorough survey of all the elements in the situation which is before the reader. Here, again, the particularistic spirit of specialists made for failure. The effort of the Fund is mentioned because it in a measure explains the long delay on the part of the Historical Association in taking a serious view of its responsibility to history in the schools. It is reported, possibly without ground, that those who were directing the activities of the Fund took a position too far to the left to suit the Council of the Association. At any rate, after providing for the preparation of some texts and readings for the junior high school, a teacher training study, and other researches, the Fund withdrew from its sphere of influence.

In the meantime, the Association's Committee on History in the Schools, under the chairmanship of Professor W. E. Lingelbach, brought out the History Inquiry report. The purpose of the report was to

¹ It ought to be said that the Commonwealth Fund made the first stage in this movement possible.

provide definite facts for the Council of the Association. The facts presented seem to have had some influence, for steps were at once taken which led to the organization of the present Commission on an Investigation of History and the other Social Studies in the Schools, under the chairmanship of Professor A. C. Krey.¹ A complete report of the organization and plans of the proposed investigation are to be found in Volume XVIII, 3, of the magazine. The Carnegie Corporation is providing the necessary funds; the Commission represents all of the social sciences and the organizations of educators as well as history, and there is every reason to expect that in 1933, when it is to report, a way will have been found out of the present bewildering confusion.

Another enterprise has been started by the American Council on Education. This is not a survey or investigation; it is a plan to provide materials for the teacher. The American Council will set up an advisory committee; in co-operation with this committee school systems will appoint experienced teachers who will be given leave from their regular work; no funds will be solicited from private sources. When the materials are ready they will be used experimentally; later they will be standardized for general use. The prospectus lays a good deal of stress on the fact that the social elements of mathematics, science, and language must be made to contribute to social education in the schools. This enterprise has been launched within the year; but with the backing of the United States Commissioner of Education and other leading pioneers, one may hope for some useful path-finding from it in the next few years.

This has seemed a dreary story of failure on the part of those who might have led. There are two highly cheering counterweights: thousands of first rate teachers have been doing their work effectively, undismayed by lack of leadership; and THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK has gone steadily on its way publishing every useful lead that has been made available. It is likely that history teaching would go on developing with geological slowness, but steadiness, even if committees ceased from troubling. Nevertheless *noblesse oblige* has its place in education as well as elsewhere.

Twenty Years of Civics

BY PROFESSOR HOWARD C. HILL, Ph.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The important developments that have taken place in the teaching of civics during the last twenty years may for the sake of convenience be considered under four main heads: first, the relation of civics to the other social studies; second, content and emphasis in civics; third, pedagogical aids and laboratory equipment for the teaching of civics; fourth, changes in the technique of instruction. Due to limitations in space the last-named division of the subject will receive only incidental treatment in this article.

A careful examination of the articles published in the first volume of *The History Teacher's Magazine* shows clearly that both the extent and the character of civic instruction in the public schools twenty years ago were in a transitional stage. For several years an effort had been made to give civics a separate place on the school program, but the attempt had been only partially successful and the question, as will be shown later, was one of the moot issues of the day. Greater progress had been made in the tendency to break

away from the barren study of governmental machinery and the dry-as-dust examination (and often the memorization), clause by clause, of the Constitution, but the practice was still continued in many schools in various sections of the country.

That both the question of the content of civics and its relation to other subjects were of concern to persons interested in civic education appears in the first article dealing with the teaching of government to be published in the *Magazine*.¹ In an article entitled, "Instruction in American Government in Secondary Schools," Professor William A. Schaper, who had served as the chairman of the Committee of Five of the American Political Science Association, which had recently issued its report,² gives these words of caution and council to teachers of civics³:

In selecting a text the teacher should avoid the old-style manual, consisting of the clauses of the constitution with comments. Such books are entirely out of date. They represent the first attempts at textbook making in this field. They never were good texts. It is rather surprising that more than a score of high schools reporting still use these useless books. The teacher should equally avoid the new hybrid text, which attempts to combine in one a treatment of history and government. In the very nature of things, such books must be confusing and distracting to the beginner.

COMBINATION OR SEPARATION

In the same article from which the foregoing quotation was taken, Professor Schaper summarizes the results of an investigation, which included schools in all parts of the country, showing the extent to which separate courses in government had already been provided. "In the West out of 240 schools heard from, 153 were offering separate instruction in government, 47 taught the subject in connection with history, and 40 failed to specify the plan in use. The teachers or principals in these schools personally preferred the separate course by 158 to 30, 54 failing to commit themselves. In the South 85 schools reported a separate course in government, 53 a combination course with history. The teachers or principals reporting preferred the separate course by 111 to 33. In the East and Mid-West 98 schools reported a separate course on government and 74 a combination course. The teachers or principals expressed a personal preference for the separate course by 110 to 42."⁴ The importance of the issue of combination or separation, as viewed by the committee of which Professor Schaper was chairman, may be seen in the fact that the committee devoted almost half of its report to a discussion of the subject.

The views of the committee encountered vigorous opposition. Professor T. F. Moran, in an article published four months later in the *History Teacher's Magazine*,⁵ declared that the committee was biased in favor of the separate course, that its presentation of the issues involved was unfair and unjust, that it made "extravagant and unsupported statements," and that the line of reasoning it put forth was "superficial and confused." He summed up his own views—and doubtless the views of those who agreed with him—in these words:⁶

I am inclined to believe that the best results will be obtained if the combination course be continued at least as

far as the ninth grade. It is possible to teach as much government in connection with American history as grammar pupils have the time and the capacity to receive. I believe also...that the two subjects in the grammar grades at least may be more logically and effectively taught in combination. As regards the high school, the matter seems to me to be an open question.

A similar point of view, with modifications in details, was expressed in the report which a committee of the North Central History Teachers' Association had made in 1906. The portion of the report which provided a detailed outline showing how the correlation of history and civics could be effected was reprinted by request in the November, 1909, issue of the *Magazine*.⁷ In their conclusions, says the chairman, "The committee recommended correlation so far as this is feasible; but they emphasized the fact that many important topics in civics would not be adequately treated by this method, and hence should be taught separately."⁸

The attitude of the American Historical Association on the question of separation or combination was at this time somewhat ambiguous. In 1898 the Association had approved the famous report of the Committee of Seven in which provision was made in the twelfth grade for the teaching of civil government with American history.⁹ A decade later (1909) the Committee of Eight on the Study of History in the Elementary Grades recommended that history and civics "be taught as allied subjects with the emphasis at one time upon history and at another time upon present civics."¹⁰ In 1911 the Committee of Five, although still defending the combination course, yielded somewhat to the demand for separation in the following manner:

In light of all the facts we can gather, we are justified probably in saying that there is an undoubted desire on the part of many teachers to have the opportunity to give a separate course in government, especially for the purpose of dwelling on certain phases of actual politics and government, that cannot be readily and adequately discussed in connection with American history....We desire to say clearly that we do not think that the two subjects, despite their interdependence, should be so taught as to crowd out government or give insufficient time for its proper study. More and more, as the days go by, it becomes plain that the schools have the clear duty of giving full instruction on the essentials of American government and practical politics. The Committee then recommended that in the fourth year of the high school two-fifths of the time "be given to separate work in government and three-fifths to the course in history."¹¹

One of the first organizations to give a definite recommendation in favor of separation was the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, which, in 1913, declared that "civics should be given a place of its own separate from history." So strong was the current in this direction that by 1916 it seems safe to conclude that with few exceptions progressive leaders in educational circles had come to regard civics as worthy of a separate and distinct place on the program of social studies for pupils in the junior and senior high-school grades.

This belief was embodied in the proposals of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association published in 1916. The committee recommended: first, that in the seventh grade civics be

made a phase of the work in geography and European history, or be segregated in one or two periods a week; second, that in the eighth grade one-half year be devoted to American history and one-half year to civics, with geography as a phase of the foregoing subjects; third, that in the ninth grade the entire year be given to civics.¹³

The recommendation that civics be given a distinct place in the curriculum of the upper elementary and junior high-school grades was definitely made later in 1916 by the Committee of the Seven of the American Political Science Association, and three years later (1919) by the American Sociological Society. Even the ill-fated Committee on History and Education for Citizenship of the American Historical Association gave a separate place on the program to what it first called "Community and National Activities," but subsequently denominated "Study of American Industries."¹⁴

In view of such recommendations, concurred in generally by national organizations, it would seem that the advocates of separation had won the struggle. But their victory was more apparent than real. The controversy had hardly ended, if, indeed, it may be said to have ended, before new opponents entered the lists.

In its recommendation for a separate place on the program for civics the Committee on Social Studies did not intend to divorce the study from related subjects. Its purpose, in fact, was just the reverse; repeatedly throughout the report it urged the closest correlation between geography, history, and civics. In its recommendation for the twelfth grade (American history having been placed in the eleventh grade), the committee went even further by advocating the introduction of a course entitled, *Problems of American Democracy*. This course, according to the report, was not to be organized "on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society," which were to be studied "in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological."¹⁵ In so far as the work for the twelfth grade is concerned, therefore, the committee proposed to do away with the several social sciences and to substitute in their stead instructional material of a political, sociological, and economic character organized on a problem basis. This recommendation, it may be said, did not receive the approval of the schools with anything like the degree of unanimity that marked the reactions of educators toward the committee's recommendations for the upper elementary and junior high-school grades.¹⁶

The new opponents to separation, to whom reference has been made, are generally known as the advocates of fusion or unification. Like the Committee on Social Studies in its recommendation for a course in *Problems of American Democracy*, they maintained that they did not propose to merge the established subjects. In fact, they went further and declared that they had no interest in the established subjects. Instead, like the committee, they proposed to make the course a study of the "problems and issues of contemporary life," the selection of which they in-

tended to determine by an analysis of the contents of newspapers, magazines, and books written by "frontier thinkers."¹⁷ The available evidence seems to indicate that the unification movement has won some acceptance in the junior high school grades, but has met with little favor in the senior high school.¹⁸

As matters stand today, a wide variety of courses involving instruction in civics are given in different parts of the country. In the primary grades such instruction is almost invariably incidental in character and, in so far as it involves civic knowledge, is given in connection with the work in reading, history, and geography. In the intermediate grades a similar practice is followed, although the number of schools providing a definite place for civics in the fifth and sixth grades is increasing. In the elementary and junior high-school grades most schools give a year to a year and a half to the study of community and vocational civics. The senior high school commonly offers semester courses in advanced civics, elementary economics, or problems of American democracy.¹⁹

CONTENT AND EMPHASIS IN CIVICS

As indicated at the beginning of this article, the civics taught in the schools twenty years ago consisted no longer of the mere study of governmental machinery or constitutional provisions. Such had been the main characteristics of the old civil government presented in the schools during the seventies and the eighties, pictured so vividly by Professor James A. Woodburn:²⁰

"So far as I know the study of civics in the public school was not systematically pursued in America until after our civil war. In the years not long after that conflict, when I was a boy in No. 8, I was required to study the Constitution of the United States. I know now that our teacher knew nothing about that document. She knew nothing of its history, its development, or the meaning of its text. What we were required to do was to commit to memory and to repeat its articles and its clauses, and to recite them in turn....My impression is that I did not imbibe from that course any civic aspiration, nor contract any useful civic habit or desire....My next experience in civic study came when I was a junior in college. There, again, I had to study the Constitution of the United States, this time with textual comment and explanation and historical notes....Again the teacher, as I see it now, although he was President of the University, added nothing to the course, although I think he took little away."

Such instruction, to repeat, had largely vanished by 1909. In its stead most schools were giving attention to the functions and the actual work of government, with emphasis upon local political institutions, especially in the upper elementary grades. This tendency had been stimulated by various factors. As early as 1905 a committee of the National Municipal League had formulated an outline for a course in municipal government for high school students. Three years later the Committee of Five of the American Political Science Association declared that "the emphasis in

the grammar grade work on government should be on local and State governments and should deal with school projects, activities, and methods of doing things rather than consist of a mere collection of lists of officers and their salaries or an analysis of the constitution."²¹ Speaking of the civics in the high school the committee says: "The emphasis should be placed on the government of the locality, especially of the city, the town, and the State with which the citizens come in contact most frequently,"²² In 1909 the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association stated that the emphasis should be placed upon the functions of government rather than upon its machinery.²³ During the same year a committee of the National Municipal League published a report in the *History Teacher's Magazine* in which it included an outline for a ninth-grade course in municipal civics that had been in operation for a number of years in one of the high schools of New York City.²⁴

The tendency toward the study of the local community noted in the preceding paragraph as evident even before 1909, came to definite fruition in 1916 with the notable report of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association mentioned earlier in this article. In support of the study of the locality the committee said:²⁵

Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual co-operation with it, than is the case with the national community.

During the next six or eight years, the civics generally taught in most places in grades seven to nine consisted largely of a study of the local communities in which the schools were situated. In some instances special manuals, pamphlets, and books dealing with the locality were prepared by teachers, pupils, or groups of citizens and were used in the schools either as texts or to supplement the text. As examples of the places in which publications of the sort were prepared mention may be made of Wichita (Kansas), Bay City (Michigan), Newark (N. J.), New Orleans, Philadelphia, and New York. In the latter city material was provided by pupils and teachers, was published in *The Outlook* (N. Y.), and was subsequently brought out in book form under the title, *Our City—New York*.²⁶

The type, of course, explained in the preceding paragraph is still used in a large number of schools, but the tendency seems to be towards a broader interpretation of the term "community." Such, in fact, was the intention of the Committee on Social Studies, as is clearly shown by the following quotation from the report:

Our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as of the smaller community. The significance of the term, "community civics," does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests....It is a question of point of view, and community civics applies this point of view to

the study of the National community, as well as to the study of the local community.²⁷

Thus, both the content and the point of view of the course recommended by the Committee on Social Studies mark a departure from what had generally been included in courses in civics. Instead of limiting the work to the machinery of government or even to the functions of government, the committee recommended that attention be focused upon the "elements of community welfare," which is listed as follows: health, protection of life and property, recreation, education, civic beauty, wealth, communication, transportation, migration, charities, correction. The study of such topics necessarily demanded a consideration of matters that lie outside the field of government as it had ordinarily been conceived. A course developed in accordance with the ideas of the committee would, of necessity, embrace not only the political aspects of the topics studied, but also the economic, sociological, and historical aspects as well. Indeed, such topics as education, wealth, communication, transportation, and migration could have found little or no place in the old time civil government or in most of the courses in civics taught in the schools prior to 1916.

The enlargement of the scope of civics, indicated above, appears even more clearly in other recommendations of the committee. The work proposed for the ninth grade was to include not only one-half year of community civics, but also a half-year of economic and vocational civics. This, of course, involved purposes and materials that would have had no place in the civics of an earlier day. Equally significant as indicating a departure from the scope of traditional courses in advanced civics for high school seniors was the recommendation for the twelfth grade. After calling attention to the inadequacy of the traditional courses in civil government and alluding to the conflicting claims for a place in the sun of the advocates of political science, economics, and sociology, the committee concluded:²⁸

The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize instruction, not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil. In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects—political, economic, and sociological.

The preceding recommendations and other factors soon widened the scope of the civics presented in most schools. In addition to the use of materials drawn solely from the field of government and politics, courses were enriched by the inclusion of economic and sociological matter and by a consideration of economic and sociological points of view.

This larger aspect of the problem suggested by the last phrase was occasionally overlooked or misinterpreted by course makers and textbook writers who attempted to carry out the recommendations of the committee. In no instance, perhaps, was the misconception greater than in the efforts that were made to

provide courses and textbooks that would embody the recommendations of the committee in regard to vocational civics. In many instances such courses and texts consisted of little more than a study of occupations with the prime purpose of aiding pupils in the choice of a vocation. This aim, it is true, was one of the considerations that the committee had in mind, but it was of minor and not major consequence. On this point the words of the report are as follows:²⁹

The Committee is here interested in its vocational guidance aspect only as an incident to the broader social and civic training of the youth....The chief purpose....should be the development of the social significance of all work; of the social value and interdependence of all occupations; of the social responsibility of the worker, not only for the character of his work, but for the use of its fruits; of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life; of the duty of the community to the worker; of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community; and of the part that government actually plays in regulating the economic life of the community and the individual.

The changes stimulated or initiated by the Committee on Social Studies constitute the last important development in the content of civics or in matters of emphasis to receive general approval and acceptance. What the "Investigation of History and Other Social Studies in the Schools" now in progress, under the auspices of the American Historical Association, may lead to is, of course, impossible to foresee.

PEDAGOGICAL AIDS AND LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

In no single respect, perhaps, has progress in connection with civics been so striking during the last twenty years as in the development of pedagogical aids. In 1909 the material equipment for the study of civics was limited for the most part to the textbook, supplemented occasionally by a few reference books and magazines. Here and there, it is true, energetic teachers made use of newspapers and government documents, or took their classes to visit a court room, a city council, or the State legislature. Few supplementary volumes suitable for pupils in the upper elementary grades, or even for those in the high school, were in existence, and the number available for use in the schools was still less. Charts for the classroom were unknown. Standardized civic texts had not yet been devised. Civic manuals, or workbooks, were yet to be written.

In all of the foregoing respects marked progress has been made since 1909, especially during the last decade. One of the first and most successful efforts to provide appropriate material to supplement the textbooks in civics and the other social studies was the publication by the United States Bureau of Education in 1917-1918 of the series of *Lessons in Community and National Life*, edited by Charles H. Judd and Leon C. Marshall. Since that time other serviceable books have come from the press and a number of volumes of readings are in preparation.³⁰

Laboratory equipment is also common in many schools. In addition to public reports and official documents, teachers find no difficulty in obtaining sample legal forms, ballots, and maps.³¹ A series of

wall charts for teaching citizenship, serviceable in both junior and senior high schools, was published in the spring of 1929.³² Several standardized tests in civics have also been brought out in recent years.³³ Six manuals to help the teacher conduct laboratory work in civics have been published in the last three years and more are in preparation.³⁴

Instruction in civics, as carried on in 1929, stands in favorable contrast to the civic teaching of twenty years ago. In most schools training in citizenship is looked upon as synonymous with training in membership, and is regarded, therefore, as a present reality in the lives of boys and girls, not as something that they are to attain in later years. In consequence, the subject-matter of civics includes not only a consideration of governmental functions and problems, but also a treatment of primary social groups (home, school, and church), as well as a study of industrial society and vocations. Instruction in the classroom is supplemented by opportunities for the formation of civic attitudes and civic habits in extra-curricular activities and by appropriate participation in school management. Today, as never before, training in citizenship is generally accepted as the controlling purpose of the school as well as its main obligation.

¹ William A. Schaper, "Instruction in American Government in Secondary Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, vol. I (October, 1909), pp. 26-27.

² *Proceedings of the American Political Science Association*, 1908.

³ William A. Schaper, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

⁵ "The Teaching of Civics," *loc. cit.* (February, 1910), p. 138.

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ Albert H. Sanford, "Civics in the Secondary School," *loc. cit.*, pp. 63-64.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 63.

⁹ Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven, *The Study of History in the Schools* (Macmillan Company, 1899), pp. 81-85.

¹⁰ Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Eight, *The Study of History in the Elementary Schools* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1910), p. 117.

¹¹ Report to the American Historical Association by a Committee of Five, *The Study of History in Secondary Schools*, pp. 12, 48.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 52.

¹³ *The Social Studies in Education*, p. 15., United States Bureau of Education *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 28. Alternative proposals are also made for the grades mentioned above.

¹⁴ Compare *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, vol. X (Supplement, June, 1919), p. 2, and *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, vol. XII (1921), p. 119.

¹⁵ *Loc. cit.*, p. 53.

¹⁶ The history of the course in Problems of American Democracy is traced elsewhere in this issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

¹⁷ *Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, pp. 187-190, 260-268.

¹⁸ *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, pp. 324-329. Department of Superintendence Fourth Yearbook, 1926.

¹⁹ The latest adequate survey of the courses in the social studies in the public schools, so far as the writer is aware, is Edgar Dawson's "The History Inquiry," published in the June, 1924, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

²⁰ "Teaching Citizenship," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, vol. XXII, No. 17, p. 261.

²¹ Charles G. Haines, et al., *The Teaching of Government*, p. 23. Report to the American Political Science Association by the Committee on Instruction (Macmillan Co., 1916).

²² *Ibid.*, p. 24.

²³ *Op. cit.*, p. 121; see also Sarah A. Dynes, "History in the Elementary School," *History Teacher's Magazine*, vol. I (November, 1909), pp. 52-53.

²⁴ James J. Sheppard, "Municipal Civics in Elementary and High Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, vol. I (January, 1910), pp. 99-102.

²⁵ *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, pp. 22-23. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 28, 1916.

²⁶ Frank A. Rexford, *Our City—New York*, Allyn and Bacon, 1924.

²⁷ *Loc. cit.*, p. 23. See also pp. 17-18.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 27.

³⁰ For a list of supplementary books suitable for the upper elementary and junior high school grades, see H. C. Hill, "The Teaching of Civics in the Junior High School, With Especial Reference to the Work in the Ninth Grade," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, vol. XVII (January, 1926), pp. 11-12.

³¹ For suggestions concerning laboratory equipment, see Hill, *op. cit.*, pp. 12-13.

³² R. O. Hughes, *Twenty Wall Charts for Teaching Citizenship*, A. J. Nystrom & Co., 1929.

³³ W. L. Uhl, et al., *Supervision of Secondary Subjects*, p. 329; W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Elementary Subjects*, pp. 479-480.

³⁴ R. M. Tryon, "Certain Aids in History and Civics for Students and Teachers in Junior and Senior High Schools," *Occasional Leaflet* (Southern California Social Science Association), Vol. V (January, 1929), No. 2, pp. 1-4.

Thirteen Years of Problems of American Democracy in the Senior High School

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THE ORIGIN OF THE COURSE

Thirteen years ago the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association proposed a course in Problems of American Democracy for the fourth year of the traditional four-year high school. In its report the Committee defined the subject as a study of "actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological."¹

In proposing this course the Committee felt that it was offering a practical solution of a problem which was more or less acute at that time. This problem was to find a culminating course in the social studies other than history. The course in Advanced Civics that had held sway in the last semester of the high school since the report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association had many opponents. Some of these opponents were the champions of economics and sociology. It was the desire of the Committee to give some recognition to the advocates of these subjects. To do this it had three alternatives: (1) to suggest a course in one of the three fields; namely, economics, political science, or sociology; (2) to provide type courses in each of these fields, leaving to the schools the choice of which one to offer; or (3) to propose a new course, which would draw upon all three of the fields for its material. The Committee chose the third of these alternatives, and named the new course *Problems of American Democracy*.²

The chief reason given by the Committee for proposing this new course was that in actual life one faces problems not specific social sciences, but uses these sciences to interpret problems. Furthermore, the actual problems that one meets in daily life have many sides which require the use of the different social sciences to get a complete view. Inasmuch as it was not practicable in 1916 to include in the curriculum of the traditional four-year high school a course in each of the social studies other than history,

the Committee felt that its proposal to study problems instead of subjects was a practical solution of a real difficulty.

THE SPREAD OF THE IDEA BACK OF THE COURSE

Between 1916 and 1922 four other committees, all of national scope, reported on certain phases of the social studies in the high school. Three of these, the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, the Committee on the Teaching of Sociology in the Grades and High School, and the Committee on Social Studies of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, favored a course for the last year of the senior high school very much like the one proposed in 1916 by the Committee in the Social Studies in Secondary Education. The other Committee, which represented the American Political Science Association, opposed a course in Problems of American Democracy to take the place of Civics. While two of these reports were not adopted by the bodies sponsoring them, it seems safe to conclude that by 1922 the suggestions made by the Committee on Social Studies in 1916 were favorably received in many quarters.

As early as 1924 it became evident that the course was being accepted by teachers and school administrators. Dawson's report, which appeared in June of this year, showed that Problems of American Democracy was taught in more schools than were medieval history, world history, and English history. It was also offered in more schools than sociology, but not in so many as were economics and civics. The course appeared in many of the schools of New Jersey and Pennsylvania as early as 1921. In 1926, Brown canvassed the courses of study of thirty-four States.³ He found that at this date the course in Problems of American Democracy was recommended in twelve States. Brown also found courses listed under such titles as "Problems of Democracy," "Social Problems," "General Social Science," "Introduction to Social Science," "American Problems," "Social

Civics," and "Economic Problems." It was difficult for him to determine with the data at his command whether these courses were or were not the same in aim and content as the course listed under the title, "Problems of American Democracy." If they were not the same, Brown's findings are somewhat misleading.

More recent, and probably more reliable, information than Brown's study contains is found in Miss Taylor's investigation cited above. With respect to the status of Problems of American Democracy in 1929, as revealed through State courses of study, Miss Taylor discovered that twenty-three States now make some provisions for the course. In four States—Kansas, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Tennessee—the subject is one of those required for graduation from the high school. After 1930, Alabama will also place the subject on the required list.

In order to note the spread of the idea back of the course in the States between 1926 and 1929, one needs but to compare some of Brown's findings with Miss Taylor's. With respect to each of the social studies other than history offered in the last two years of the senior high school, Brown found 16 States offering civics; 25, economics; 15, sociology; and 12, Problems of American Democracy. In 1929, Miss Taylor found 27 States offering civics; 22, economics; 15, sociology; and 23, Problems of American Democracy. It will be observed from these findings that in three years the recommendations for a course in Problems of American Democracy increased, until the number of States offering the course exceeded the number offering economics and the number offering sociology. This increase in the provision for Problems of American Democracy can be expressed in another way, by saying that in 1926 but 35 per cent. of the States having courses of study made some provisions for the course, while in 1929 56 per cent. of those having State courses provided for it.

The foregoing statements probably exaggerate the spread of the idea back of the course in Problems of American Democracy. In her study, Miss Taylor examined 190 city courses of study in the social studies. She found that but 51 of these made provisions for a course in Problems of American Democracy. This is 26 per cent. of the total. Since the majority of the 190 cities are in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, where the course is required, the showing for the country as a whole is rather meager. There is no data at hand to indicate that the course has passed beyond the stage of recommendation in many quarters. This probably means that administrators rather than teachers favor the course.

OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT OF THE COURSE

Knowledge of social, economic, and political principles and problems is the most prevalent objective for the course at the present time. Other objectives in more than two of the present-day courses of study are: development of sound reasoning; develop a desire to participate in solving problems; prepare pupils for citizenship; train pupils for making investigations; knowledge of one's duties to society; develop

interest in the problems of America; train for the observation of social phenomena; development of a scientific attitude; and organize and express ideas effectively. Some other objectives appearing in courses of study with less frequency are: give overview of social science; tie up the practical matter of other social studies courses; cultivate a love of truth; make a pupil proud of his country; develop a spirit of joy in service; know how to make a living and how to live; acquaint students with institutions of America; train in civic virtues; and understand American law and politics. The adverse critic of the course in Problems of American Democracy will be quick to observe in the foregoing objectives the fact that the number that could not be attained through the study of economics, civics, or sociology is very small. It would seem then even from the standpoint of an unprejudiced observer that the advocates of the course have not to date made a strong case for the subject, if one is to judge from the objectives they propose for it.

When one views the present situation with respect to the material usually included in the course in Problems of American Democracy, one does not find that a unique content has been discovered. For example, in the courses she examined, Miss Taylor discovered that the topic "Education" headed the list of the 84 topics which she found. "Conservation of National Resources" was the topic next to the top in Miss Taylor's list. Other topics (or what some courses call problems) appearing in more than ten courses are: "International Relations"; "Capital and Labor"; "Poverty"; "The Family"; "Immigration"; "Defectives, Dependents, and Delinquents"; "How We Are Governed"; "Production"; and "Distribution." As it now exists, the course is made up of a conglomeration of the topics which rightfully belong in separate courses in civics, economics, or sociology. In fact, as these courses are now conceived, there is nothing included in the course in Problems of American Democracy that could not be placed in any one of them. This fact is occasionally recognized in existing courses of study, some of which refuse to give credit in Problems of American Democracy if the student has subsequently pursued separate courses in the social studies other than history.

TEXTBOOKS FOR THE COURSE IN PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

In the early history of its career the course in Problems of American Democracy was much handicapped by the lack of suitable textbook material. It will be recalled that the course was proposed in 1916. It was not until 1922 that a textbook appeared. During this year three such texts were published. Two of these were christened *Problems of American Democracy* and one was named *Problems in American Democracy*. During 1923 two other texts were placed on the market, one under the title *American Problems* and the other *Actual Democracy*. The next year saw the publication of two more texts in the field under the titles *Every Day Problems of American Life* and

Current Problems in Citizenship. Since 1924 three other texts have appeared. They were issued under the titles *Problems of American Life*, *Major Problems of Democracy*, and *Social Economy*. Another book, which was published as early as 1923, is often used as a text in courses called *Problems of American Democracy*. This work is known as *Social Civics*. In all, ten texts have appeared for the course that the Committee on Social Studies proposed in its report. If one includes *Social Civics* in the list, the number is eleven, which is not a bad showing for the course, when compared with the appearance of similar material for courses in the other social studies. In fact, one may say that at the present time there are as many worth-while texts for the course in *Problems of American Democracy* as there is for any other single course in the social studies now offered in the senior high school with the exception of American history.

An analysis of the content of the texts now available in *Problems of American Democracy* shows much variation in the emphasis given to the topics treated. For example, in a study made some three years ago, Dahl⁴ found that textbooks in *Problems of American Democracy* devote 11.2 per cent. of their space to the topic "Individual (including Consumption)"; 11.2 per cent. to the topic "Labor (including Wealth)"; and 10.5 per cent. to the topic "Production." Some other topics treated in the text analyzed by Dahl and the per cent. of space devoted to each are: "Transportation and Communication," 3 per cent.; "The Community," 2.4 per cent.; "Exchange," 3.8 per cent.; "The Family," 3.6 per cent.; "Religion and the Church," 1.4 per cent.; "School and Education," 3.1 per cent.; and "Population," 5.4 per cent. The interesting fact revealed by Dahl's study is the amount of duplication of material in the texts in civics, economics, sociology, and *Problems of American Democracy*. Dahl found no topic treated in texts in civics that was not included in texts in *Problems of American Democracy*. His study made very clear the fact that the content of the texts in civics could be interchanged for the content of the texts in *Problems* without seriously affecting the topics treated or the amount of space devoted to them. Texts with a new content have not yet appeared. In fact, according to Dahl's study, texts with a new apportionment of space to old topics do not even exist.

THE VOICE OF THE CRITICS

From the outset the course in *Problems of American Democracy* has been the subject of both favorable and unfavorable criticisms. The general view of those offering these criticisms is well summed up by Dawson when he says:

Leading educators are completely divided on the question; some arguing that a course ought to be taught systematically as a science in grade twelve, and others replying that social sciences ought to be taught through a study of social problems. The former wish to teach principles of the science, because, unless they are so taught, the pupils will not arrive at them in the short time at their disposal. The latter care less about the principles than the practical problems. They urge the importance of understanding the problems of sociology and of some training in the scientific method of studying them.⁵

Adverse criticism of the course other than the one mentioned by Dawson above are: (1) Teacher-training institutions do not provide adequate training for the teachers who are expected to teach the course; (2) The organization of the material into problems lacks the fundamental quality of unity; (3) The extensive duplication of material in courses in community civics; and (4) Students need training in economic thinking, in civic thinking, and in sociological thinking, and that this valuable training cannot be given in a general problems course.

Those who favor the course say: (1) That the problem approach to the social studies other than history is more valuable than the traditional subject-matter approach, because it proceeds from the known to the unknown, and that the problems grow naturally out of the environment of the class; (2) That in every-day life one faces social problems and not social studies in the form of civics, sociology, or economics; (3) That relevant material and current issues are always emphasized; and (5) That the course in *Problems of American Democracy* is superior to separate courses in civics and economics as a preparation for college economics and political science.

At the present writing the argument is still in the academic stage. Neither side has any significant facts to support its position. There are now some signs which seem to indicate that the proponents of the subject are gaining a little ground.

SUMMARY

The course in *Problems of American Democracy*, which is now found in many high schools, was first proposed thirteen years ago by the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. Between 1916 and 1922, three other Committees of national scope favored such a course in their reports, and one opposed it. The existing studies of the changing status of the subject indicate that it had made little or no headway before 1921, but since this date has enjoyed a steady increase, until today (1929) it is recommended in nineteen State courses of study and required in four. It is now required by law in one State, New Jersey.

There is much confusion at the present time with respect to valid objectives for the course and suitable material to attain these objectives. General objectives, such as "Knowledge of social economic and political principles and problems," "Development of sound reasoning," and "Develop a desire to participate in solving problems," seem to predominate. "Education," "Conservation of National Resources," "Capital and Labor," "Poverty," "The Family," and "Immigration" are the topics most frequently studied in the course.

No textbook appeared for the subject before 1922. Since this date, ten actual ones have appeared. The material in these books is very similar in content and emphasis to that found in current textbooks in civics. There is also much overlapping of the material in high school texts in sociology and economics. For

this reason, students are not generally permitted to take the course in Problems after they have had courses in civics and economics, or a combination of any two of the three separate courses; namely, civics, economics, and sociology.

Miss Taylor's forecast for the future of the course, after assembling and studying practically all of the available material relating to it, is as follows:

Problems of American Democracy seem to be growing in extent each year, and there is no evidence to make friends of the course believe that this growth is likely to be checked soon. The wider extent of the offering of the course, the retention of the subject in many schools, its recent introduction in four States, and the recent publication of textbooks and teaching materials for the subject are the basis for the belief that courses in Problems of American Democracy will continue to spread in high schools in the next few years in spite of its limitations which to a certain degree handicap the growth of the course.*

A New Viewpoint in Economics Teaching*

BY PROFESSOR LEVERETT S. LYON, ROBERT BROOKINGS GRADUATE SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In considering this subject—A new Viewpoint in Economics Teaching—there comes repeatedly to my mind a phrase used by Henry W. Grady, the great Southern editor and orator. "There was a South of slavery and secession; that South is dead. There is a South of liberty and freedom; that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour." There is an analogy in the world of economic study. There was an economics of cold laws and formal logic; that economics is dying, if not dead. There is an economics full of the life, the vigor, and the realism of a growing society; that economics is becoming the economics of today.

Nothing, however, is farther from my desire than to attempt an odious comparison between the older economics and the new. All students of society owe a great debt to the penetrating thought, the breadth of view, and the astonishingly critical analysis of the older generations of economists; but as they were men of their own generation in thought, in material, and in point of view, the very spirit of their work suggests to us the desirability of being ourselves in our time—of seeing the world as it is rather than it was, of utilizing in our teaching and our writing, so far as we can, the contributions of modern students of industry, psychology, and philosophy.

Two definitions—an older and a newer one—will provide the first step towards what I would like to suggest as economics as a practical social science. The first is taken from Professor Clark's *Essentials of Economic Theory*, a book published only 20 years ago. It reads as follows:

The creation and the use of wealth are everywhere governed by natural laws, and these as discovered and stated constitute the science of economics.

* Read before a Round Table of Social Science Teachers of the District of Columbia.

¹ Arthur W. Dunn, and others, *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, p. 53.

² During the spring of 1929 the writer directed the writing of a thesis on the subject, "Problems of American Democracy as a High School Subject." This thesis is now on file in the University of Chicago Library. Miss Frances P. Taylor, who wrote the thesis, should have credit for assembling most of the material used in the writing of this review.

³ Walton W. Brown, "An Analysis of State Courses of Study for the Social Studies." Unpublished Master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1926.

⁴ Edwin J. Dahl, "An Analysis of Senior High School Textbooks in the Social Studies, Other Than History, etc." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Minnesota, 1926.

⁵ Edgar Dawson, *Teaching the Social Studies*, pp. 285-86.

⁶ Frances Purves Taylor, "Problems of American Democracy as a High School Subject." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1929.

For the purposes of this discussion, I will risk the formulation of a second by saying:

Economics is a study of the activities of people working together in securing from their physical surroundings whatever they do secure.

Of course, not every 1929 economist would agree with this definition, and for certain purposes I should like to modify it myself. But as a definition for introducing students to a study of economics, I would not, for the present, ask for a better one.

In each of these definitions economics is seen as a study of society. In the first it is the study of the creation and use of wealth as governed by natural laws. It is a science apparently in the sense that physics, chemistry, and biology are sciences. In the second definition, economics is also seen as a study of society, but hardly a study of laws which, if they exist at all, are well-known and established. It is rather a study of human beings attempting and succeeding, attempting and failing, but always attempting to determine what is worth while and how those worthwhile things may best be accomplished. In terms of the second definition, economics is considered as a combination of social philosophy and social engineering about either of which no one knows very much, and about both of which everyone wants to know so much that they become fascinating fields of study for those who so view the subject. For economics is essentially not something to be learned; it is essentially a field of work. Let me put a number of these generalizations into a somewhat more definite and practical form.

May I suggest that to teach economics as a practical social science, it be taught as a project—a single project—the problem of a society attempting to live as well and happily as possible. Here it should be emphasized that the project should, in my judgment,

be put before a class not at all as an academic matter; not at all as a matter about which things can be learned for passing an examination. There is no course like an introductory course in economics for introducing students to the idea that they are an active, living, and important part of the subject-matter of the course they are taking. As members of society, they participate in its economic activities. They are affected by the economic activities of others in an infinite variety of ways. They aid in forming social policies. This is not a question of duty or of citizenship. It is merely a fact. Let us consider what are some of the elements in a course in economics considered as a project study of living and working together. I think such a project study can be divided into two elementary parts, each of which may be considered as a project by itself, and the second of which has, in turn, several sub-projects, or parts.

Two main questions which confront society as a whole, or which may be thought of as confronting any social group, are these:

1. What are the resources available? In terms of a general study of economics, it is best to ask—what are the resources available to society?

2. What things must be done to utilize these resources in the ways that we want them utilized? This is really all there is to social life. It is in attempting to get the answer to these two questions that human activity is constantly concerned. Let us examine each of them in a little more detail.

The first project is, what are the resources available to society? It is unnecessary to say that our social equipment includes our natural resources; plus all of our supply of physical goods, railroads, factories, buildings, streets, roads, and machines, and that we may also include in our social resources ourselves, as the possessors of a supply of working ability of many kinds and qualities. During all of our life, everything which we may hope to obtain as a social group rests finally on the fact that we have these resources. Of course, originally the natural resources were the only ones available, but during the long process of social history we have added to these the great supplies of capital equipment which are of invaluable aid in using our natural surroundings. Through education and training in specialized abilities we have also improved our resources of working power in very great measure. If students are given the project of discovering for themselves the quantity, and to some extent the quality, of the resources of our country, or even of the world, and if they once become conscious of the importance of resources to them and to others, the ordinary high school subjects of commercial geography, of physical geography, will have a new meaning. Even the Census reports and other sources which furnish statistics on our supplies of this sort will become almost interesting reading matter. Here we are, over a hundred million people—if we think of the United States alone—trying to secure a living, and as good a living as possible. What are the resources upon which we may draw, their extent, their limits, their qualities?

From such an approach the mere statistical facts are not the only elements of interest. One of the difficulties with resources is the fact that they are limited. From this fact grows all of our efforts in the realm of physical research. The main purpose of physical and chemical research is to discover possible additions to our supply of natural resources. Through the limitations of our resources arise all the stirring questions of conservation versus use, and of the desirability of using resources at one time rather than at another. Most of you will remember that during the war the cry of "business as usual" was raised. It was a hard lesson for Americans—it was an even harder one for Englishmen—to learn that we did not have resources enough to supply ourselves with all the goods of peace-time and at the same time to manufacture the munitions of war. Business as usual was impossible, but England was almost defeated before she discovered that the limitations of resources made that the case.

Dozens of other interesting and extremely practical economic, historical and political questions can be raised and discussed in connection with this matter of society's resources. Space permits only a few examples. The wars which have been waged for the possession of land, or ports, or mines will come to the mind of every history teacher. One great geographer has said that the great war was essentially a struggle between France and Germany for the possession of coal and iron reserves. We are at present in a discussion involving oil resources in Mexico. Restriction schemes for rubber, coffee, and other supplies are nothing but ways of attempting to profit by the ownership of highly specialized natural resources, of climate, of rainfall, or other physical conditions.

Leaving now the first—the discovery of our resources—we will consider for a few moments the second main project. What must be done to make these resources useful? This major project, as I see it, can well be broken into four sub-projects. First, who organizes the work of converting our resources into the things we get from them—the many types of goods and services, the use of which makes up our standard of living? This project or problem, as I see it, is the very central one, the one around which a very large part of a study of economics, and for that matter civics, can be organized. We could, of course, think of a world in which each one of us attempted to secure from nature everything that we want; but if we are to work co-operatively, there must be organization and somebody must be responsible for organizing it. Simple examples, such as the necessity for class organization, are sometimes helpful in making this point vividly apparent. It is important, I think, that the student think about this question of organization, and I believe that if it is put to him as a question, he will come rather readily to see that we rely on two types of organization in the world as we know it. The first may be called individual enterprise, and the second public enterprise. For organizing many types of work to produce many things, we permit any

individual who wishes to do so to go ahead. This is individual enterprise. Men may start factories for making shoes, clothing, machinery, brick, lumber, and automobiles with the greatest freedom. There are some slight restrictions on their operations, but the field of private enterprise is very wide, indeed. On the other hand, we use public enterprise to supply ourselves with protection—by means of a police force, and an army, and a navy. We use public enterprise to supply ourselves with parks, streets, water supply, education, mail service, a large amount of health protection, and a variety of other goods and services, with the production of which the efforts of our various governments are concerned.

Private enterprise works through businesses. An individual business, a partnership, corporation, a holding company, or what not, are only examples of the ways in which private enterprises organize to carry on their work. Once the student sees this, he finds it easy to see why one form is suitable for some purposes, another for another. It is easy also for him to see that private enterprise, regardless of the form of business it uses, finds it necessary, in greater or less degree, to borrow money to buy, to sell, to employ, to make goods, to communicate, and to transport. Once it is seen that these activities are required by every business we have a clue to almost every possible vocation and its relation to social life as a whole. In organizing to carry on these six activities, the positions or jobs of our business world are created. It is difficult, indeed, to find a possible job that does not fall in one of these classes of work or in the directing of one of them.

On the other hand, how does public enterprise work? It works through governments. I want to be sure that I am understood to say governments in the plural, not in the singular. When we use that word in the singular, it becomes an abstraction, an unreality, capable of inciting all sorts of foolish ideas. When we use it in the plural, it is easy to see that governments in a democracy like ours are little more than committees, large or small, that we have set up to do various kinds of work for us. A government should never be created excepting to do some useful work. It is as useful as it is capable of doing work we want done more effectively than private business is capable of doing. There are, as has already been suggested, certain things which we can do better in this public way through governments than we can do them through the efforts of private individuals. Let anyone who has a different idea of sovereignty than the one I have just expressed—that in a democracy the basis of government should be the desire to get some useful work done—consider our own first attempt at national government under the Articles of Confederation. Let me recall what a futile and useless thing that government was, and how the need for getting certain things done, such as the regulation of trade and universal coinage influenced the construction of our present national government.

Governments must be planned by the architects—the constitutional conventions or other bodies—and then the plans must be interpreted through the years

by the builders—the legislatures and the courts (as Mr. Noyes has so enjoyably pointed out). Their personnel must be chosen and rechosen again. This, of course, is the work of politics. I would ask no better way to get students to thinking about politics than to have them see that the only reason we need governments is to get certain things done and then to put up to the student the question of how we can best organize to choose a personnel for planning those tasks and executing them. To my way of thinking, such a way of approaching the matter is more conducive to a healthy and wholesome attitude toward governments than anything we can accomplish by talking sanctimoniously about the duties of citizenship.

Governments, like businesses, have tasks necessary to their work. They, too, must secure money, buy, sell, employ personnel, communicate, and transport. In carrying on these tasks, governments, like businesses, create vocations—all the vocations of government service. In many of these fields the vocations established by governments are indistinguishable in nature from those of private business. A man may work in a government gun plant and for all practical purposes be in the same vocation as if he were employed by the Bethlehem Steel Company. If he works for the United States Shipping Board as an engineer on a liner, he is doing essentially the same thing as if he were employed by a private shipping company. Certain of these six major tasks are carried on by governments very differently from the way in which they are carried on by private business. Private business, for example, secures funds by borrowing; governments by taxation. The contrast of the two methods makes as pretty a study as anyone could wish for several days of class discussion. Governments, in times of peace, buy supplies and services much as private businesses do. In times of war they buy almost everything but services. These are secured through voluntary offerings or through drafts—exactly like taxes. That is also a most interesting subject for consideration, this way in which in times of emergency there can be secured the most valuable of all possessions for the most dangerous of all occupations, without thought of compensation (unless one counts \$30 a month as compensation for facing bullets). Of course, for such service real compensation is impossible.

Nor do governments sell to the extent that private businesses do. Most of their services are in effect given away. Each of us may drive on the public streets, send our children to public school, visit the public Zoo, join the Easter parade on the public sidewalk whether we have paid taxes or not. What more interesting question for a class meeting than the relative merits of the two ways of securing goods—by purchase from private business, by gift from governments—paid for, indeed, in the second case, but paid for by the interesting indirect process of taxation, which has always meant that some have paid heavily and some have paid little? A week's discussion will not give a full answer to the issues that will be raised.

This one question will stir up enough thoughts for a good course in economics.

I have spent so much time on this matter of the organizers, private and public, of social life that I shall touch only briefly the other projects which seem to me subordinates to our second main question of what must be done to make our resources available. Indeed, the others, in part, have been covered by what has already been said. A second sub-project is involved in the question, How shall we decide what things are to be made from our resources? It is in connection with this question, I think, that the significance of private property is most easily handled. If all of our resources were owned by the public, it is probable that we would not have anything but public enterprise as a way of supplying our wishes. But as a matter of fact, a large part of our resources of every description are owned by private individuals. We each own something, our own ability to work if nothing else. As a result the productive activity of society has become a vast market place in which the decision as to what shall be made is decided, so far as private business is concerned, by the answer to the question, what will profit most. Putting it very briefly, each of us in spending what we spend, suggests to a business man the desirability of making available those articles for which we bid with our dollars. The old phrase, money talks, is no more true anywhere than in the work of deciding what goods shall be produced, and how many of each kind. In production carried on by governments, as has already been suggested, this pecuniary bidding is not so prevalent. We have what we may call a "social good" method of determining what shall be had. Congress decides that it will, or will not, be to the social good to have 16 cruisers. In Chicago, and in other cities, the mayor and the alderman decide that it will, or will not, be good to pave the streets or to extend the parks, or police the gunmen. However it is decided, it has never been decided so that everyone got everything he wanted. It is worth while for any student to see the several reasons for this—it is partly a question of the wealth which one may have earned, or inherited, or found, or stolen, or married (this is not meant to be working toward a climax), partly a question of his own ability, partly a question of how wise public agencies have been, and always a question of the fact that resources are limited and that our power to produce everything that everybody wants is insufficient.

A third sub-project of our second main question, namely, what must be done to make our resources available, may be expressed in this way. How are our resources converted into the things which are desired? If students set out to get the answer to this question themselves, they will open another great range of practical matters. They will disclose to themselves the uses of machinery, factories, railroads, warehouses, and all the other paraphernalia by means of which we take nature and convert it to our needs. The entire field of manufacture in all its myriad forms is involved in considering this question, as are those of transport and trade, if we consider them, as econ-

omists usually do, as part of the process of production.

Finally, as a fourth phase of the question, What must be done? we must ask—How shall we decide how much each person shall have of what is made available from our social resources? We have been given certain social resources. We make things from them. How shall these things be divided? In some ways this question is the most practical of all. At least it is the one which has, through history, given cause to more revolutions, more feeling of ill-will within social groups, more sense of injustice, more feeling of conflict between ethics and facts, than any other one of those discussed. Of course, no modern teacher would try to lead students to believe that the products of our economic machine are divided according to the work done by each. No one, it seems to me, can do that excepting he define work in a way which really evades the point and begs the whole question. Indeed, in discussing the way in which we decide what goods shall be made, it already appears that we have largely discussed the question of how goods shall be divided. So far as private business is concerned, one gets what one can buy; and one can buy according to what one has; and one sometimes has not only because he worked hard and long and effectively, but because he picked his father with rare pecuniary discrimination, or settled on an unfertile piece of land under which someone later accidentally discovered coal or oil.

In concluding, may I say that such an approach to teaching economics as I have attempted to suggest is merely a method calculated to help students see themselves as parts of the great social task of utilizing resources in making a living for society, and dividing that living among the individual members. But, as I attempted to say at the beginning, the problem of discovering resources, of deciding how to use them and when, the problem of deciding what to use them for, and the problem of distributing the results of production, raise questions—as many questions which require our thinking about ends as require our thinking about means. The world needs men and women interested in such engineering questions as the discovery and transformation of resources, but it needs these men and women also interested in the questions of what goods can most usefully be made and how these can, with the greatest degree of equity, be distributed.

How do pupils evaluate a course in Economics? Mary R. Barnette, in "Pupil Appraisal of a Senior High School Course in Economics," in the April issue of the *School Review*, contributes some of the statements on "What Economics Has Meant to Me," written by fifty pupils who had completed the course. An examination of these statements, according to the writer, shows that the principal values listed by the pupils include: (1) ability to read newspapers and magazines more intelligently; (2) ability to think; (3) training and quickening of power of observation; (4) uprooting of preconceived economic fallacies; (5) provided a new meaning to other subjects in the curriculum, particularly to history and civics.

Propaganda in Teaching the Social Studies

BY PROFESSOR BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The word "propaganda" as commonly used today does not mean disinterested information. Indeed, it connotes an ulterior purpose, which may be good or may be bad. When it concerns itself with education and the schools, it may become especially vicious, because it generally develops a regimentation of thinking, away from which education is supposed to lead.

Although, since the World War, we have heard much of the uses of propaganda, it is not a new thing. Its uses have been many and far-flung. Nor is it purely American. In the field of history it has long served a purpose, especially for those nationalistically minded. Livy apotheosized the achievements of Rome, Green glorified England, and Bancroft painted the patriots of the American Revolution as men without fault. As a consequence, there has developed in various peoples an exaggerated self-satisfaction in their national characteristics and attainments, which has resulted in traditional enmities, such as have existed between France and Germany, the United States and England. As a well-known writer has pointed out:

Americans are taught to hate Britishers....and not only descendants of the men who made the Revolution, but every newly arrived immigrant child imbibes the hatred of Great Britain of today from the patriotic ceremonies of the public schools.¹

In France and Germany, official sanction of the direct teaching of patriotism has tended likewise to exalt and condemn, as the situation has demanded, and to show each country as without fault in wars, and to admonish readers of textbooks that it is a duty of the citizen always to defend his country.² Such teaching inevitably leads to a distorted picture of the whole in the mind of the pupil subjected to different treatments of the same events, a point illustrated by Professor Donald Taft in his study of textbooks used in different countries. In discussions of the causes of the World War, according to Professor Taft, French children read: "The war was caused solely by German aggression. The Germans, believing themselves to be a superior race, have long plotted to exterminate the unworthy French." German children read: "Germany is guiltless; English jealousy and French desire for revenge were the chief among many causes." The same disparity Professor Taft found in discussions of the treaty of peace. On the Conference as a whole, one German textbook says:

Clemenceau had now reached the goal of his life. He could now unchain his hatred and revenge against defeated Germany. What concern of his were Wilson's Fourteen Points? "The Fourteen Points are really a few too many," he sneered; "the dear God himself had only ten"....Finally Clemenceau and Lloyd George wrested the Fourteen Points [from Wilson] one by one....a cry of horror broke from the German people, weakened by the hunger blockade.³

In the United States, an example of the same condition is found in textbooks dealing with the War between the States. The South, in particular, during *ante-bellum* days endeavored to present a history favorable to slave-holding interests, and more latterly has attempted to justify the Civil War from a sectional point of view. To the Southerner it seemed highly necessary and desirable for authors of textbooks to "step aside....to drag in" views favorable to the South, and to resort to measures which would expel from their midst "the wandering incendiary Yankee schoolmaster," with "his incendiary school-books," parading under "the black, piratical ensign of abolitionism."⁴ So common was a prejudiced discussion of controversial questions in the books of that day that William Howard Russell, *The* [London] *Times* correspondent during the Civil War, declared that he was unable to obtain "a single, solid, substantial work" on the controversy between the North and the South, for there was not one published which was "worth a cent."⁵

Since the Civil War the most vigilant sponsors of a pro-Southern history have been Southern Veterans' Associations and similar organizations, who have objected to the use of such terms as the "War of the Rebellion," "rebels," and "arch-traitors." In the light of these objections, resolutions condemning books not presenting so-called "true facts" have been passed in annual conventions, and school authorities have been urged to prohibit the use of such books in the schools.

In the North, as late as 1922, similar objection was voiced by the Grand Army of the Republic in their annual conventions, who, in turn, declared that textbooks used in Northern schools "depreciated the value of our troops, and represented that the South was in the right."⁶

However, with the opening of the twentieth century, the attacks directed against textbooks by pro-Southern and pro-Northern groups abated, and the welding influence of the World War did much to obliterate sectional lines.

But partisan history in America has not been demanded solely on the basis of sectional controversies. Racial, religious, and patriotic groups have also asserted their individual claims and endeavored to make Clio a special pleader. In 1907, the German-American Alliance, in co-operation with the Ancient Order of Hibernians in America, resolved "to recommend a systematic investigation of the share all races have had in the development of our country....as the basis for the founding of an unbiased American history." For, they maintained, the Anglo-Saxon had been given undue credit in the upbuilding of the American

nation and that the German and Irish had not been paid merited attention.

During the World War, European history textbooks received the chief criticism from vigilant censors, who wished to eliminate any passages which praised the Central Powers or in any way disparaged the deeds or characteristics of the Entente. Since 1918, the desire to picture the Allies in a favorable manner has been set aside by the fear that such a narration would produce an unpatriotic American citizenry. This fear was closely linked in the minds of many with the belief that radicalism and socialism were undermining the foundations of society and of government. As a result, there occurred a widespread investigation of the writing and teaching of history carried on by various groups and individuals.

These groups hold, in common, that American histories as now written omit outstanding heroic characters, particularly of the Revolutionary War, and that they are pro-British in tone. The last charge, no doubt, arises from the new trend in American historical scholarship in the last quarter of a century, in which scientific methods have been employed in the search for facts, and which have resulted in a revision in the traditional treatment of our relations with Great Britain.

An active worker in the censorship campaign was the late Charles Grant Miller, whose series of articles in the Hearst newspapers gained recruits from an element of the Knights of Columbus, the Steuben Society, the Sons of the American Revolution, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the American Legion, and many others. Besides resolutions condemning a so-called "un-American history," passed at many annual conventions, these groups were often instrumental in the passage of "pure history laws" and in throwing out of the schools of their communities books on the proscribed list. Investigations of textbooks took place in Boston, Washington, New York, and many other cities. The most colorful attack on histories was that of Mayor William Hale Thompson of Chicago, whose campaign cry of "America First" brought his city international notoriety. Yet a study of the books attacked, as well as others used in the schools, disproves the taint of un-Americanism on the part of the authors. Indeed, it shows a uniform tendency to exalt and glorify those attributes and achievements primarily American.⁷

The endeavors of forces outside the schools to censor history teaching and writing have provoked much comment among educators, publicists, and organizations of teachers. Resolutions protesting such activities as destructive of good scholarship and teaching have been passed by teachers' groups and by the American Historical Association. In some cases, individual remonstrances have arisen from the ranks of those who had constituted themselves censors.

But the story is not yet told, for direction of teaching is not confined solely to the field of history. Included in an ever-widening circle are the subjects of civics and economics, the former a special concern

of organizations promoting instruction in "American institutions and ideals." For such a purpose the American Bar Association, in 1922, appointed a standing Committee on American Citizenship and received the co-operation of other organizations, such as the Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, Chambers of Commerce, and patriotic groups. The National Security League, through its Civic Department, has circulated literature relating to the teaching of the Constitution, and claims responsibility for the enactment of many State laws requiring the teaching of government in the schools. The Better America Federation of California, The Constitution Anniversary Association, and others also have promoted programs of a similar nature. Only this autumn a bulletin of the Scottish Rite of Freemasonry of the Southern Jurisdiction called attention to an alleged "Fascisticizing" of Italian youths in American schools, said to be carried on through the agents of Mussolini.⁸

The American Federation of Labor has likewise interested itself in the character of teaching and the content of textbooks in the social studies. In 1903, the Executive Council was instructed:

To secure the introduction of textbooks that will be more in accord with modern thought upon social and political economy, books that will teach the dignity of manual labor, give due importance to the service that the laborer renders to society, and that will not teach the harmful doctrine that the wage-workers should be content with their lot, because of the opportunity that may be afforded a few of their number rising out of their class, instead of teaching that the wage-earners should base their hopes upon the elevation of the conditions of the working people.

In 1919, the Executive Council was directed to appoint a committee to investigate the matter of selecting, or of preparing and publishing, textbooks appropriate for classes of workers. The following year the committee reported that their investigation showed an insufficient and inaccurate presentation of industrial growth and of the trade union movement, and recommended that a textbook be prepared by a competent trade unionist under the executive officers of the American Federation of Labor. The Report of 1923 continued to emphasize the importance of instruction in social and economic studies, but disclaimed any desire to have their point of view "stressed to the exclusion of all others." They further denied any inclination on the part of their group to influence public education for partisan purposes.

The charge that "Big Business" has had a hand in the writing of textbooks has also met with considerable publicity. Within the last few months, hearings before the Federal Trade Commission in Washington have been focused upon the use made of propaganda by public utilities throughout the United States. According to the testimony presented, three national utility organizations—the National Electric Light Association, The American Gas Association, and the American Electric Railway Association—have been the chief groups to attempt contacts with the schools for the purpose of presenting their point of view through educational channels. Their activities have been promoted by committees frequently made up of men connected with the organization's

public relations committee. A close co-operation exists between national committees and those of regional and State utility organizations, and special committees covering over three-fourths of the States are said to serve as the principal agencies through which publicity is carried on.

The first of the public utility information committees was established in 1919 by Samuel Insull in Illinois. About six years ago this committee undertook to investigate the textbooks in civics and economics used in the schools of Illinois. According to the director of the committee, 105 books were examined, the books being listed as "bad," "unfair," "fair," and "good."

In the examination of these books, criticism was raised against passages which in any way could be interpreted as favorable to municipal ownership, rather than private control of public utilities. After 1924, considerable concern over textbooks was evident, and surveys were made in New York, Pennsylvania, the Carolinas, Ohio, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Colorado. In some States effort was made to get adopted by school authorities textbooks satisfactory to the utilities, and in certain cases publishers are said to have been approached for the purpose of revising "unfair" textbooks or publishing those which would be satisfactory to the utilities. In addition, the utilities included, in their program affecting the schools, the distribution of pamphlets "strictly informational" in character, a weekly news service, materials for debate, as well as furnishing public speakers to address high school assemblies.⁸

Undoubtedly, the activities of the utilities have received greater publicity than that accorded other groups. To study the influence, character, and extent of propaganda in the schools a special committee of the National Education Association was appointed in 1928 and reported, during the summer of 1929, that the whole problem was one of "major significance," but that the committee had "avoided final and dogmatic pronouncements." However, they recommended that the schools "should give greater attention to the development of methods whereby children may be trained in habits of critical judgment."¹⁰ Over half a hundred outstanding men and women concerned with the problem of education during 1929 have joined in a national "Save-Our-Schools Committee." According to press reports, the sole purpose of the committee is to "establish upon yet firmer foundations the essential American doctrine that American schools and colleges are not to be considered as subjects of propaganda by special interests, groups, or causes." The chairman of the committee is Bishop Francis J. McConnell, with John Dewey as first vice-president.¹¹

One of the most recent reports of efforts to present a special point of view in teaching relates to instruction in the subject of Prohibition. In June, 1929, press dispatches, circulated widely throughout the country, carried the information that the Bureau of Education had prepared a bulletin on this subject which would be distributed at the July meeting of

the N. E. A. Due to pressure from various sources, these pamphlets were suppressed, and have not yet found their way into the hands of teachers. Temperance teaching in the schools, however, has long been a part of the program of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, whose many publications, essay contests, and establishment of young people's branches tend to give point to their desire to free "our humanity" from "the burden of alcoholism" and the use of narcotics.¹²

The teacher of history and the other social studies is thus confronted by a myriad of forces endeavoring to draw him hither and thither. Independence from such forces comes only through wide and accurate information and by integrity of purpose to teach the truth. In the words of Walter Lippmann, "True opinions can prevail only if the facts to which they refer are known; if they are not known, false ideas are just as effective as true ones, if not a little more effective."

⁸ H. Morse Stephens, "Nationality and History," *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 21 (January, 1916), pp. 225-237.

⁹ Jonathan F. Scott, *The Menace of Nationalism in Education* (New York, 1926).

¹⁰ Donald R. Taft, "Historical Textbooks and International Differences," *Progressive Education*, Vol. II (April-June, 1925), pp. 92-96.

¹¹ *De Bow's Review*, Vol. 18 (1855), pp. 660-661.

¹² William Howard Russell, *My Diary North and South* (Boston, 1863), p. 25.

¹³ For a detailed discussion, see Bessie Louise Pierce, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History in the United States* (New York, 1926).

¹⁴ See Bessie L. Pierce's *Civic Attitudes in American Textbooks* (University of Chicago Press, 1929).

¹⁵ *Supreme Council, 53rd Bulletin*, No. 150, September 3, 1929 (Washington, D. C.).

¹⁶ Utility Corporations, *Seventieth Congress, First Session, Senate Document No. 92* (Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.). There is a wealth of periodical literature. For the teacher not wishing to delve into the sources the following are suggested: "Public Utilities Propaganda," *Information Service*, Vol. VIII; No. 2, Department of Research and Education, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City; and Paul Webbink, *Public Utilities Propaganda in the Schools*, Editorial Research Reports, Washington, D. C., June 28, 1928.

¹⁷ The National Education Association [Washington, D. C.], *Report of the Committee on Propaganda in the Schools*, July, 1929.

¹⁸ *Journal of the American Association University Women*, Vol. 22 (April, 1929), p. 157.

¹⁹ Cora A. Stoddard, "The Teacher's Part in the Anti-Alcohol Movement," address at the Congress, The World League Against Alcoholism, 1927.

In his study of the finances of his own country—Roumania—I. N. Angelescu reminds his readers that stabilization is never the result of legislation, but rather of an economic equalization, long prepared and then effectually released, realized. Therefore, stabilization is not now possible in Roumania, as the conditions which determine stabilization are not now realizable. His reasons are supported by an excellent set of statistical tables, which show the financial depression into which the country has fallen. (*Revue Economique Internationale* for January 21st.)

Current Curricular Experimentation in the Social Studies

BY HOWARD E. WILSON, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

The purpose of this article is to call attention to a few curricular experiments and investigations now under way or but recently completed. The article is not intended as an exhaustive summary of experimentation, but merely as an informal and confessedly inadequate report of what some progressive schools and teachers are doing.¹ Perhaps even the term "progressive" is unjustified; in one sense, the article is merely a sampling account of unusual or unconventional proceedings in the organization and arrangement of social science materials for teaching purposes.

The first section of the article will deal with selected courses of study prepared for city or State school systems within the past few years, largely since the appearance of the Dawson report of 1924.² It is hoped that the analysis of representative courses of study will indicate the general fields and trends of current curricular experimentation. The second section will discuss briefly some of the courses now offered or proposed for the junior high school, giving particular attention to the fusion or integration courses which seem to occupy the center of the stage of experimentation just at present. The third section will deal with experimental reorganization of the program of studies in the senior high school, and the last will summarize briefly what appear to be the major influences affecting and guiding current experimentation.

COURSES OF STUDY OF THE 1920's

In the years from 1892 to 1921 a series of committees, representing recognized national bodies, made a number of recommendations as to what courses and sequences of courses in the social studies ought to be taught in the elementary and secondary schools. The schools which base their social science offerings on the recommendations of one or more of these committees have a certain orthodoxy, and this article deals with the unorthodox rather than the conventional. In Columns 1 and 2 of Chart I, however, the recommendations made by two of the most influential of these committees are summarized in order to keep before the reader a standard with which to compare the more recent courses of study summarized in the remainder of the chart. In Columns 3 through 10 of the chart are found summaries of a number of courses of study which have been published since January, 1922, and which lack the sanction of any national body. It is this group of courses of study which may throw light on the character and the extent of current curricular experimentation.

It is not the function of this article to enter into an analysis of the theoretical considerations underlying curriculum construction.³ It will aid in in-

terpreting the proposals of recent courses of study, however, if we keep in mind the school changes of the last three decades which affect curriculum construction. In the first place, the school curriculum of today is attempting to provide for a larger and different group of pupils than before. Second, the rise of the social studies other than history has had a profound effect on the curriculum. Third, the aims and objectives of contemporary schools are different from those set up two or three decades ago. In one sense, we may say that the 1898 program of studies represents the idea of training embryo historians; the 1920-1929 courses represent new plan for utilizing history and the other social studies for the more democratic purposes of general citizenship education.

The guiding purpose for the great body of curricular change and innovation in recent years is well exemplified in the Pennsylvania State course of study, outlined in Column 3 of Chart I. It represents increased utilization of social science materials other than history and a more compact correlation of courses than was the rule prior to 1922. It is a sifting of previously used social science materials and indicates an increased emphasis on the interpretative aspects of the subject-matter chosen.

It is noteworthy that three of the eight recent courses of study summarized in Chart I provide for a fusion course in the social studies at the junior high school level. An examination of Chart I makes it apparent also that considerable experimentation is going on in connection with the work in Grade XII. The course in modern problems is by no means standardized; in many schools it is broken into separate courses, or at least accompanied by parallel courses. There seems little tendency to experiment with new history courses except in connection with such courses as meet unusual local situations. The courses in world history and American history seem to be standardized so far as allocation is concerned. Five of the eight courses of study prepared later than 1921, which are presented in Chart I, offer world history in Grade X; likewise, five offer American history in Grade XI.

The program of courses offered at the School of Organic Education, conducted by Mrs. Marietta Johnson, at Fairhope, Alabama, is most interesting. It is, perhaps, the most unconventional and, in a sense, the simplest arrangement which has come to the writer's attention. Grade IX, first year of high school, offers a survey of the political aspects of world history; the Grade X stresses the economic and industrial aspects of history; Grade XI deals with the history of social life and institutions, and Grade XII is devoted to a course in "current history." This curriculum is just going into effect and is the product

CHART I. COMPARISON OF COURSES OF STUDY ADOPTED IN REPRESENTATIVE STATES AND CITIES SINCE 1922 (4)

GRADE	Recommended Course of Study by Committee of Seven 1898	Course of Study Recommended by Second Committee of Eight 1921	Pennsylvania Course of Study 1922	Proposed St. Louis Course of Study 1926	Denver (Colo.) Course of Study 1926	Oakland (Cal.) Course of Study 1926	Seattle (Wash.) Course of Study 1927	Rochester (N. Y.) Course of Study 1928	Proposed Virginia State Course of Study 1928	School of Organic Education (Fairhope, Ala.) Course of Study 1929
VII	English History	The World Before 1607	United States History	Fusion Course (History, Civics, Geography, etc.) in the Social Studies	Fusion Course in Social Science, with Emphasis on World History in Grade VII, United States History in Grade VIII, and Social Civics in Grade IX	American History to 1850, with Civics and Geography	American History	Fusion Course in Social Studies	American History with Civics and Geography	
VIII.	American History	The World Since 1607 (With Emphasis on the United States)	Community Civics			American History Since 1850, with Civics and Geography	American History (½ Year)		Unit Course in Social Science ("Human Progress")	
IX.	Ancient History	Community and National Civics	Economic Civics Vocational Civics	World History	World History	Two-year Sequence in World History California and Community Life Vocational Opportunity Survey of the Development of World History	Community Civics (½ Year)		World History	Political Survey of World History
X.	Medieval and Modern History	Progress toward World Democracy Since 1650	World History	World History	World History		World History	Origins of Contemporary Civilization to 1750	American History	Economic and Industrial History
XI.	English History	Progress toward Democracy in the United States	American History	American History	American History and Government	Survey of the Development of American Institutions	American History	History of Contemporary Civilization since 1750	Problems of Democracy Ancient History	History of Social Life and Institutions
XII.	American History and Civil Government	Social, Economic, and Political Problems and Principles	Problems of American Democracy	Economics Sociology	Psychology Economics American Problems	Problems of American Democracy	Pacific Rim History	American History and Civics Social Economics		Current History

of experimentation along similar lines in the elementary school. Mr. Willard H. Edwards, who is in charge of the series of courses, writes:

This trial indicates that if we are not trying merely to crystallize our present situation, the better way to teach economics and the other so-called "social sciences" is not as sciences, but genetically and dynamically as history.³

We may fairly conclude, from examination of the courses of study presented in Chart I, that there has been widespread willingness to experiment in the teaching of the social studies during the past decade. The chief field of experimentation has been, and is, at the junior high school level; a second unsettled field is that of Grade XII. The chief tendencies in curriculum construction seem to be the increased inclusion of social studies other than history, the compact correlation of all courses, the establishment of what may be called "survey" rather than "specialization" courses, and the emphasis upon pupil needs rather than subject-matter technicalities.

EXPERIMENTATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The courses of study referred to above, as well as the literature in the field of education, indicate today widespread interest in a fusion course of social studies, extending through the three years of the junior high school, ignoring subject-matter lines, and "integrating" the various elements of social science. It is contended that such a curriculum makes the social studies more practical and dynamic and organizes them in a way more comprehensible for the junior high school pupil. Whether the contention is valid or not is a moot question, but it is certain that a goodly body of current experimentation involves the fusion course. Chart II gives the skeleton outlines of four three-year fusion courses which deserve attention. These are by no means the only published or available outlines for such courses; possibly they are not the best, but they seem typical and indicative of the purpose of the fusion course.

The Rugg program, previously described and discussed by Professor Gambrill in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*,⁴ is perhaps the best known of the fusion courses. It is at present in process of crystallization in textbook form. The materials chosen for the course are based upon presumptive social needs as determined by an analysis of the writings of leading research and "frontier" workers in the field of human relationships. As has been indicated before, the course ignores traditional subject-matter lines, and organizes the chosen body of materials in a series of units, each focused upon a cross-section aspect of modern life.

Mr. C. C. Ball's course of study for the San Antonio junior schools (Grades VI, VII, and VIII) represents a different organization of much the same material used by Rugg. The Ball outline seems to adhere somewhat more closely to traditional organization (stressing elementary economics in Grade VI, American history in Grade VII, and civics in Grade VIII), but it is far from rigid adherence to the orthodox. Neither the Lincoln School nor the San Antonio outline seems to include a great deal of vocational guidance. The St. Louis outline, on the other

hand, includes half a year's work on "Making a Living," and the Cleveland course includes considerable vocational work in scattered units of its sequence. Both of these courses stress community problems to a greater degree than do the courses previously mentioned.

The Cleveland fusion course, most recent of those outlined in Chart II, is, in many ways, the most interesting of those presented. It divides the three-year program into forty-six units. The provision for teaching study skills is an unusual feature of the course; to include units on "Maps and What to Do With Them" and "Making and Reading Graphs" is a new departure in the construction of social science curricula. One observes in the Cleveland course, however, and to almost as great an extent in the other courses outlined in Chart II, a definite and unfortunate break between the units or topics which make up the course. Further experimentation must reveal to us whether it is not as confusing for the pupil to plunge from a study of "Opportunities in Some Cleveland Occupations" into a discussion of "Our Nation Expands Overseas," or from "Waste and Conservation of America's Resources" to "How Nations Live Together" within a single course, as it is asserted to be confusing for him to pass from a class in vocations or in civics to one in history. It is possible that, in efforts to integrate the social studies in the junior high school, we have broken down subject-matter lines, but have built up equally formidable barriers between the topics within a course. Current experimentation with fusion courses, it seems fair to say, has not yet produced an entirely defensible course: further experimentation is desirable, is necessary, and is under way.

There are a number of interesting unconventionalities at the junior high school level which do not involve such extensive reorganization as is necessary to provide for three-year fusion courses. A number of schools are attempting to work out courses or parts of courses dealing with subject-matter drawn primarily from the life of the school; in Newton, Massachusetts, an introductory course in social science uses as its text the small high school handbook for entering pupils published by the student body each year. At the University High School, University of Chicago, a course in "Human Betterment" has been tried out recently. The course was an introductory course; its point of view was that "social evolution is resulting in human betterment," and its aim was the development of "healthy, intelligent optimism." It may be described as a fusion course of only one year's duration. In 1928-1929, as taught by Mr. John R. Davey, it embraced five units of work: (1) The Struggle for Security, (2) The Rising Standard of Comfort, (3) This Thinking World, (4) This Humane World, and (5) Beauty in Living.

It is interesting to compare the character of this experimental course with the work offered in Grade VI in San Antonio and in Grade VII in the Rugg program. In all three, though coming from widely separated areas and originating in different groups,

CHART II. COMPARISON OF FOUR FUSION COURSES OF SOCIAL SCIENCE FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS (7)

COURSE PREPARED BY HAROLD O. RUGG, LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE	COURSE PREPARED BY C. C. BALL, DIRECTOR OF JUNIOR EDUCATION, SAN ANTONIO, TEX.	ST. LOUIS COURSE	CLEVELAND COURSE
<p>GRADE VII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Town and City Life in America. 2. Resources, Industries, and Cities in America. 3. The Great Industrial Nations. 4. The Changing Agricultural Nations. 	<p>GRADE VI</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How Man Gets His Living from the Earth. 2. Trade and Commerce. 3. The Betterment of Living Conditions by Improvements in Transportation, Communication, and Manufacturing. 4. Community Health Problems. 	<p>GRADE VII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Expansion and Development of the United States. 2. Growth of Population. 3. Development and Transportation in the United States. 	<p>GRADE VII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Membership in the Junior High School. 2. The City Water System. 3. Cleveland, a Great Crossroads of Trade. 4. Maps and What to do with Them. 5. How to Make an Historical Frieze. 6. Making and Reading Graphs. 7. The Story of the Western Reserve. 8. Puritan and Cavalier in Ohio and the Nation. 9. Individual Responsibility in the Junior High School. 10. How Our Country Has Grown. 11. English Colonies and the Appalachian Barrier. 12. Colonial Life. 13. Religious Toleration. 14. A Government of the People. 15. Seeking Truth Through Discussion.
<p>GRADE VIII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. The Westward Movement and the Growth of Transportation. 6. The Mechanical Conquest of America. 7. America's March toward Democracy. 	<p>GRADE VII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Discovery and Settlement of North America. 6. Establishment of the United States. 7. The Westward Movement. 8. American Expansion Overseas. 9. American Immigration to Date. 	<p>GRADE VIII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Making a Living. 5. Recreation. 6. Public Health. 7. Public Education. 	<p>GRADE VIII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 16. Opportunities in Some Cleveland Occupations. 17. Our Nation Expands Beyond the Seas. 18. Winning a Living from the Soil. 19. Development of Transportation and Communication. 20. Development of Transportation on the Great Lakes. 21. The United States Becomes a World Power. 22. Growth of Freedom of Speech and of the Press. 23. Race Toleration. 24. Some Occupations of the Business and Industrial World. 25. A Look into the Future. 26. The Clothing Industry in Cleveland. 27. Working for the Government. 28. The New American. 29. Two Giant Forces, Labor and Capital. 30. The Interdependence of Our North and South. 31. Our Place Among the Nations. 32. Our Need of a Merchant Marine. 33. Our Latin American Neighbors.
<p>GRADE IX</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Americanizing our Foreign-born. 9. Resources and Industries in a Machine World. 10. Waste and Conservation of America's Resources. 11. How Nations Live Together. 	<p>GRADE VIII</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. Function of Government. 11. Kinds of Government. 12. Evolution of our National Government. 13. State Government. 14. Municipal Government. 15. International Relations. 16. Government and Business. 17. Taxation and Government Finance. 	<p>GRADE IX</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Conservation, a Life-giving Force. 9. Industrial Development of the United States. 10. Government—National, State and Local. 11. International Co-operation. 	<p>GRADE IX</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 34. The Change from Hand to Machine Labor. 35. The Government of Cleveland. 36. Our State Government. 37. The Nation's Government. 38. The Laws Under Which We Live. 39. Helping the Government to Help Us. 40. Town and Country. 41. Improving Our Community. 42. Conserving Our Natural Resources. 43. Money and Banking. 44. Society's Burdens. 45. Our Economic Well-being. 46. The Use of Leisure Time.

there is an attempt to teach directly an interpretative and optimistic outlook on life. Perhaps an aspect of personal philosophy is to be added to the already large family of the social studies.

EXPERIMENTATION IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Experimentation in the senior high school, for obvious reasons, is not as widespread or as revolutionary as in the junior high school. In 1924, Professor Dawson reported a trend toward the establishment of a world history course in the high school, and experimentation since 1924 seems to have accentuated the trend. Outlines in world history appears in the published courses of study of Virginia, Connecticut, Joliet, St. Louis, Long Beach, Denver, and Seattle, to mention only a few of the States and cities which have effected curriculum changes since 1922. Reference has already been made to the apparently standard allocation of the course in Grade X. Occasionally, however, experimentation involves a two-year sequence in world history for Grades X and XI. The University High School, University of Chicago, has been working with such a course for a number of years; Minnesota and Baltimore, in publications of 1925, seem to propose, in effect, the same two-year sequence.

It is in Grade XII, however, that the great amount of current experimentation in the senior high school is under way. A committee of the National Education Association in 1916 recommended a course in "Problems of Democracy" for Grade XII, but, as is indicated by the data of Chart I, the recommended course is by no means standardized. "Social Economics," "Introduction to Social Science," "Current History," "Economics," "Sociology," "Psychology," "American history, and local history all have their advocates for the Grade XII position. The University High School, University of Chicago, has given up a course in modern problems for half courses in "American Political Institutions" and "American Economic Institutions." Three years ago Professor Gambrill was instrumental in launching important experimentation with modern problems materials in the schools of Queen Anne County, Maryland. The course there offered stresses the technique of problem solution, rather than problematic subject-matter—a characteristic which is in complete accord with the fundamental aim, or rather the hope, of the problems course. A second striking characteristic of Professor Gambrill's course is its selection of "Public Opinion and the Press" as its first and keynote unit. No textbook is used in the course; the pupils have direct access to current periodical and pamphlet literature.⁸

A number of high schools are experimenting with entirely new courses or half courses. In the Seattle high schools a course in Pacific Rim history has been evolving for several years. Of it, Miss Elizabeth Rowell writes:

This one-semester, elective course, taught in the senior year of the nine high schools of the city, is largely what the individual teacher makes it. All teachers, however, agree on the following: they emphasize China and Japan in the Orient, Central and South America in the West, touch lightly on Australia and the Pacific Islands. They give a

background of the history of these countries and then stress their present economic, social, and political conditions.

The University High School at Eugene, Oregon, is experimenting with a course in Oriental history,⁹ and a number of published curricula give space to Asiatic or Pacific affairs. The fact that these courses arise on the west coast, where proximity makes public opinion more sensitive to Pacific problems, is an excellent example of the general tendency the social studies evince toward adapting themselves to current situations and needs. In the same way the world history course, already discussed, is an outgrowth of increasing interest in world affairs. The increasing importance of our relations with Latin-America find their reaction in experimentation with courses in Latin-American history. Oklahoma City has been working on such a course for six years;¹⁰ likewise, Mechanics Arts High School in St. Paul offers a one-semester course in Latin-American history.

It must be pointed out, however, that the most important current experimentation in the high school social studies is not in the allocation of courses nor in the development of new fields. It is in the arrangement and organization of subject-matter within courses that the most stimulating research is going on. Mention has already been made of the new content outlined in Professor Gambrill's course in modern problems. The chief characteristic of the world history courses is the organization of historical materials in units, which are psychologically appealing to the pupil and which seek to *interpret the rise of civilization*, rather than to transmit to pupils a bewildering array of chronological data. Traditional military and political subject-matter is giving way to social and economic materials. Striking illustration of these tendencies are to be found in two sets of guide sheets recently published by the University of Chicago Press, *A New Approach to European History*, by E. T. Smith, and *A New Approach to American History*, by T. C. Bailey. Brookline, Massachusetts, is experimenting with a unified, socialized course in American history for the non-college group.

CONCLUSION

This article may well be concluded with a summarizing of the factors which appear to be stimulating and guiding the great body of experimentation now under way in the social studies. It seems that there are four major influences "turning the wheels" of experimentation. First, the administrative reorganization of the American school system and consequent establishment of the junior high school as a unit of the system necessitates extensive revision of the social science offering. It is fair to say that the particular functions and possibilities of the junior high school constitute one major influence at work in the reshaping of the social studies.

Second, the high school offerings in social science are being affected by researches and discoveries in the bodies of subject-matter which make up the social studies. The advances in sociology, economics, political science, and social history at the college level tend

to change the materials and methods of secondary school instruction.

Third, the changing character of the secondary school, and especially the current revision of its aims and objectives, help determine what is to be taught in the social studies. A school interested more in general citizenship education than in preparation for college, and more interested in personality growth than in the transmission of traditional subject-matter, is naturally and necessarily a reformatory influence.

A fourth major influence is the evident effect on the social studies of the rise of scientific educational psychology. Advances in this field, which tell us more about the nature of the learning process and about the nature of the pupil as an individual, have great influence on the arrangement of social science materials, and are stimulating constant attempts to utilize the social studies more effectively for the purposes of child growth.

Toward what goal does the experimentation seem to lead? The answer can be given briefly. Its goal is the development of pupils as citizens, rather than merely as scholars. Its object is to interpret for pupils the principles underlying human relationships, not merely to present the facts of human existence, and to make the interpretation an aid in the enrichment of human life on an increasingly democratic scale.

¹The reader interested in recent experimentation in the social studies should see J. M. Gambill, "Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies." *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 9 (December, 1923), 384-406; XV, 1 (January, 1924), 37-55.

²See Edgar Dawson, "The History Inquiry." *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XV, 6 (June, 1924), 239-272.

³For an analysis of techniques of curriculum construction, see Earle U. Rugg, *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship*. Greeley, Colorado: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928.

⁴The outlines in Columns 1 and 2 of Chart I are taken from Dawson, *The History Inquiry*. Data for other courses of study are taken from published curriculum reports of the schools concerned.

⁵Willard H. Edwards, "The Social Sciences in High School," *Survey*, LXI, 12 (March 15, 1929), 786-787.

⁶Gambill, *op. cit.* XIV, 9 (December, 1923), 384-406.

⁷The material on the Rugg curriculum is taken from the *Social Science Pamphlets* issued by the author. The San Antonio program is an abstract of the author's mimeographed outline. Other data in Chart II came from the published curriculum reports of St. Louis and Cleveland.

⁸See *Maryland School Bulletin*, X, 2 (September, 1928). Recent progress in the course has been reported on the Education Page of the *Christian Science Monitor*.

⁹Thora Smith, "An Experiment with Oriental History in the University High School, Eugene, Oregon." *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIII, 6 (June, 1922), 208-211.

¹⁰Floy Dawson, "Latin-American History in the High School." *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV, 4 (April, 1923), 141-144.

Development of the World History Course

BY PROFESSOR J. LYNN BARNARD, URSINUS COLLEGE

In considering the changes that have come in the status of World history in our secondary schools since 1900, several lines of progress may be noted. We must consider: first, the pupils studying it; second, the character of the textbooks; third, the amount of time devoted to the subject; and fourth, the technique employed by the more progressive teachers.

1. Until recently, World history—or that truncated part of it known as Ancient history—was mainly taken as part of the preparation for entering classical colleges. Those not expecting to go to college usually took American history only. Today, a large proportion of our high school graduates go to technical colleges of some sort, where Ancient history is not prescribed as an entrance subject.

A much larger proportion of our young people than formerly now attend high school, and represent all parts of the world in their racial origins. Moreover, the radio, the airplane, the movie, and other social forces are combining to make the youngsters of high school age more world minded than adults were a generation ago. Educators are coming to see how out of keeping with this age is anything less than World history as a basis of understanding.

2. In his Schoolmen's Week address at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1927, Dr. Flick so admirably described the general history given in the textbooks prior to 1910 that it will bear quoting at some length.

"It was mostly conglomerate, scrap-book history, and merely tied together dynastic and ecclesiastical occurrences. It was predominantly political, with a few comments on cultural developments and religious clashes. It stressed wars and schisms; pictured kings and queens, feudal lords and bishops, popes and emperors; emphasized dates and names....and made the study of history largely an exercise of the memory. Geographically it was confined to the Mediterranean basin, and to Western Europe, with brief allusions to the New World, Asia, and Africa."

Dr. Flick trenchantly sums up the matter by saying that it was "more remarkable for what it excluded than for what it included."

How different the World history textbooks of today! They are the very opposite of those described by Dr. Flick—or, at least, are trying to be. The authors are picturing the life of the common man, rather than the intricacies of court intrigues. They are tracing ideas and institutions all over the world, in language understandable by tenth graders. The old-time fact questions are being replaced by stimulating thought questions and suggestions for project work. An attempt is being made to group the passing years into epochs or units, that shall make the great span of history more easily grasped by immature minds. Care is being taken to tell the story *as a story*, that it may

grip the imagination and hold the interest of the young reader. And all this in a single volume of seven to eight hundred pages.

3. The amount of time devoted to World history seems to be slowly but steadily decreasing, from two years to a year and a half and then to a single year. There are several reasons for this change.

To begin with, the restlessness that comes with adolescence causes the pupil to rebel against pursuing any subject for more than one school year. And of late we are finding that better results can be obtained by respecting this attitude.

In the next place, we are coming to see that one school year is ample time in which to cover World history, provided we are willing to get the story as a story and not as tiny bits of piecemeal information, wormed out of reluctant pupils by the endless question and answer process.

And, finally, the coming of the junior high school is pushing Ancient history out of the ninth year. It is obviously not a junior high school subject, and the junior high is finding that it needs every hour of its time to do its own work. Moreover, the faulty school administration shown in dividing up a unified piece of history study between two fairly distinct parts of the school system is becoming too manifest to allow of its continuance.

But just at the time when the older type of universal history is discarded, and the world is growing so small that patchwork history of a comparatively few places or periods is utterly inadequate, World history is being gradually limited to one school year—usually the tenth. Can the newer technique make this adjustment possible?

4. If the story of man's progress is to be covered satisfactorily in one school year, the formal recitation will have to be replaced by something radically different. The usual question-and-answer method is such a time consumer that even two years have hardly sufficed.

Fortunately, other procedures are being worked out that make the one-year course satisfactory. Not only is the text covered within a year, but the course is enriched with various types of project work that appeal to the varied interests and capacities of the pupils. And *the whole world*, not certain selected parts of it, are brought within the sweep of this survey.

Until the Krey Committee, or some other agency of equal weight and financial backing, shall trace the actual changes in the teaching of World history, no general statement can be safely made as to how far these changes have gone.

Some States have never departed from the two-year plan. Others have departed from it and then reverted to the older practice. Often one finds Ancient history given in the second semester of the ninth year—even in the junior high school! This is followed by what is usually termed European history in the tenth year. Many schools have gone boldly over to the one-year course, perhaps with some misgivings where the method of teaching was not correspondingly modernized.

After all, the whole question resolves itself into one of competition: between history and other subjects of the curriculum; between the two-year and the one-year course in history; between older and newer methods of teaching history. And the ones that can best adapt themselves to changing conditions, within and without the school, will survive.

The Historical Novel as an Aid to the Teaching of Social Studies

BY A. O. ROORBACH, SOCIAL STUDIES DEPARTMENT, WILLIAM PENN HIGH SCHOOL, HARRISBURG, PA.

For the past two centuries, at least, there have been historians who have favored the use of historical literature as an aid to the teaching of history, and there have been historians who have strongly opposed its use. Educators interested in methods of teaching cannot agree on the subject and have joined one or the other of the opposing schools.

The first group contend that historical fiction creates an interest for history. They quote Leopold von Ranke, the eminent German historian, who gave credit to romantic literature for his later interest in serious historical research. They cite the case of Heinrich Schliemann, of whom it is said that his great desire to find Troy was inspired by the reading of Homer's *Iliad*. Further arguments advanced by them for the use of this method are: that it provides a good use for leisure time; that it gives a cross-section of events; that it develops high ideals; that it acquaints the reader with the customs, manners,

and institutions of a people; and that it makes history vivid and real.

In support of the final argument, W. O. Collar says:

There is nothing like the magic charm, whether of sublimity or pathos, that poetry lends to historical events, persons, and places. Who can read Milman's magnificent ode on the Israelites crossing the Red Sea without a consciousness, if he reflects upon it, of a fresh and more vivid realization of a scene familiar to his imagination from childhood? How Scott's beautiful hymn, sung by Rebecca in *Ivanhoe*, makes us see, as the Scripture narrative never did, the slow onward toiling of the Israelites through the rocky fastnesses and over the sandy deserts of Arabia, guided by the pillar of cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night.

The second group, those who oppose the use of historical literature as an aid to the teaching of history, hark back to Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, the great German poet and contemporary of Ranke. Emil Ludwig, in the preface of his book, "The Son of Man," says:

On the other hand, nothing has been superadded, that is

why this book is short. The mish mash, which is called a historical novel (caricaturing, as Goethe said, both romance and history, and hardly practicable when the sources are so exiguous) would have been in this case immoral as well.

The opponents of this method are in accord with Goethe and Ludwig. In the first place, they claim that the sources for many subjects chosen by writers of historic fiction are so scanty that a genuine picture of the times, manners, and customs of a people cannot be given. Again, many writers merely create an atmosphere without a thought of original or even secondary sources. This kind of writing creates false impressions. Some of the best novelists and poets do not claim historical accuracy. They do not profess to lay the proper emphasis on events. Scott's *Ivanhoe* is not a true picture of the Middle Ages. Paul Revere's ride was not the most momentous event of the American Revolution, nor was Emerson correct when he said the shot fired at Concord was "heard around the world." Further arguments are: history in the form of biography gives a cross-section of events and creates atmosphere; history, as well as fiction, provides a good use of leisure time; "truth is stronger than fiction." Professor Henry Johnson tells us that "The value of history is not, in any event, to be realized by teaching literature. The duty of those who profess to teach history is to teach history."

Such, in brief, are the arguments for and against the use of historical fiction as an aid to the teaching of history.

The conscientious history teacher is in a dilemma. She is often criticized if she does use this method, and is asked "Why?" if she does not use it.

To complicate the subject further, many of our leading textbook writers, including Dr. Charles A. Beard and other outstanding historians, have named a few of the best historical novels at the end of certain chapters in their texts. Pamphlets and lists of "suitable" historical fiction have been prepared and recommended to social studies teachers. This seems to indicate a favorable trend on the part of educators toward the use of literature by the history teacher.

The present writer agrees with Professor Johnson that "the duty of those who profess to teach history is to teach history." He also believes that there is merit in the use of historical fiction as an aid to history teaching. This appears to be a paradox, a straddling of the issue, an easy way out. It is none of these things, however, as will appear upon a further development of the subject.

Why is it that for so many years teachers of history have either condemned or condoned, or perhaps mildly favored, the use of historical fiction? Because neither group in this controversy, to the writer's knowledge, has considered a definite technique for the handling of literature by the pupils studying history. Such a technique had to be evolved if historical fiction was to be justified as an aid to the teaching of history. This has now been done.

As classroom teachers, actually engaged in work on the firing line, we must first face the facts. Thousands of historical and biographical novels have been

and are being written. Their popular appeal is so great that they have been dramatized for both the legitimate stage and the movie. There is no indication of any decrease of interest in this direction; instead, there seems to be a demand for more and better material of this kind. Junior and senior high school pupils, after reading such a book or seeing such a movie, often come into class and ask, "Is Miss Ford, in Honore Willsie Morrow's book, 'Forever Free,' a real character?" Or, "Did Napoleon Bonaparte's brother really live in this country as an exile, and did he marry Betsy as pictured in the movie, 'Glorious Betsy'?" Or, "Did they have galley slaves in Rome such as we saw in Ben Hur?" Hundreds of questions such as these are asked until, as one teacher put it, "I can't keep up with them."

Here, then, is a valuable suggestion, one that might bring these two opposing schools together. Why not have the pupils do a little research of their own? They are interested, and here is an opportunity to apply the historical method. The historical method is one of the great values claimed for the teaching of history. It teaches the pupils how to use indexes, how to search for reference material, how to evaluate the references when found, and how to apply internal and external criticism.

We have now gathered a point from each side of the argument. We have a project—a piece of "purposeful activity." This gives those who profess to teach history a real opportunity to teach history. There is no straddling of the issue.

Trips to the library and a search through many references fails to answer the question, "Is Miss Ford a real character?" But research does not end here. A letter to the author brings an answer. Mrs. Morrow informs the pupil that Miss Ford was an actual character. She states the sources where the facts can be found, and also tells what liberty she has taken with this character in "Forever Free."

The historical novel, then, can be used to develop what the trained historian has claimed as one of the unique values of history; namely, a training in historical method.

With this in mind, history teachers should devise some form of procedure that makes this method possible. Certainly the mere assignment of such literature with the suggestion to tell the story in class does not answer the purpose.

The following outline is taken from the Roorbach-Leswing Directed Study Manual to accompany Epochs of World Progress. It was written and used by the authors in their classroom work, in the hope that it would provide a definite technique for the use of historical fiction as an aid to the teaching of history.

SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR SUPPLEMENTARY READING REPORTS

Historic Fiction

- I. Title
- II. Author
 - A. Name
 - B. Chief biographical facts

- C. Other writings
- III. Historical background of the story
(To be taken from the subtitle, preface, and prologue, and epilogue if present)
- IV. Facts noted during reading
- A. Familiar items previously encountered in textbook reading
1. Characters
 2. Places
 3. Events
 4. Buildings
 5. Customs
- B. Unfamiliar items of particular personal interest
(Refer to an encyclopedia, or other reference book, for further information and to verify the author's statements)
- V. Synopsis of the story
(To be from 1,000 to 1,500 words)

NOTE: Be prepared to tell the story in class, illustrating your talk with any available pictures, maps, or charts.

The novels, along with the biographies and books of travel, are assigned three or four weeks after the beginning of a semester. By this time a teacher should be acquainted with the individual differences of the pupils, their mental abilities, their likes and dislikes. The teacher, too, should be familiar with the historical novels themselves, so as to be able to make intelligent assignments. Beginning teachers are wise if they use some approved list, such as "Historical Fiction Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools, by Logassa and Barnard."¹ A knowledge of William Stearns Davis' novel, "A Victor of Salamis," would lead a teacher to believe that this book should have particular interest to the boys interested in athletics. Or that Bernie Babcock's "Soul of Ann Rutledge" should have an especial appeal to the girls. If not, there should be no hesitancy about changing the assignment. Remember that the first reading is for sheer enjoyment. The final aim is utilitarian or practical—the development of the historical method.

The pupils are given from six to eight weeks to complete the work suggested in the outline. It is often a good idea to set aside one class period a week for this work. Where a teacher's work is based on a laboratory method, such as the differentiated unit plan, the pupils can do the work whenever and wherever seems best. The reports on these books, after the first two months, can be made during the discussion of the chapter, unit, or epoch with which the novels deal. The assignments which deal with work already covered can be used advantageously during reviews.

The title of a book is important. Often a historical novel has played an important part in the shaping of history. For example, Helen Hunt Jackson's "Ramona" was a plea for better governmental treatment of the Indians in our Southwest. President Cleveland read the book and wrote to the author, on her deathbed, that he would do all in his power to correct the abuses. And he did. Concerning a group

of novels which the writer has found suitable for a course in Problems of Democracy, Economics, or Sociology, Muzzey says:² "Lincoln Steffen's 'The Shame of the Cities,' Thomas Lawson's 'Frenzied Finance,' Frank Norris' 'The Octopus,' Winston Churchill's 'Coniston' revealed ugly secrets of misgovernment and fraud. Muckraking was the word borrowed from Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' to characterize this 'literature of exposure.' A novel of Upton Sinclair's, 'The Jungle,' showed the revolting condition which prevailed in the Chicago stockyards and led to the passage, on Roosevelt's recommendation, of a Meat Inspection Act, for guaranteeing that the meat shipped in interstate commerce had come from healthy animals and had been packed under sanitary conditions."

The brief biographical sketch of the author is generally gotten from "Who's Who," or from an encyclopedia. This often furnishes a basis for judging not only the authority of the novel, but also the reliability of the author. For example, pupils learn that Winston Churchill was born in Missouri, graduated from the United States Naval Academy, and later in life served in the New Hampshire Legislature. This gives some idea why in *The Crisis* he was familiar with the Germans of Missouri during the Civil War. His Richard Carvel is a picture of Colonial Maryland and the naval warfare of the Revolution. His *Coniston* is the story of a political boss in New England.

The rest of the outline is clear. The more and better references a teacher has, the more practical the scheme becomes. A pupil in the writer's class in United States history suggested the following idea and carried it out. It might be of interest to teachers. He drew a colored map of the United States and pasted it on a large piece of cardboard. To the left of the map he pasted typewritten titles of the novels we had read. Different colored lines were drawn from the titles to the place on the map where the story was laid. To the right of the map he pasted typewritten copies of the references used in checking the reliability of the facts gathered in the novels. This included textbooks, the *Chronicle of America Series*, biographies, etc. Colored lines were then drawn from the reference list until they met the line from the novel list. By following the line from their novel to its setting on the map, they could trace the joining line to several references for their work.

In closing, we are convinced that a well-selected list of historical fiction has a place in the teaching of the social studies. Properly used, the historical novel becomes an aid which enables pupils to approximate a real life situation. Most of them will be called upon, time and time again in later years, to do careful and thoughtful reading; to use indexes and references; to check the reliability of statements; to sift fact from fiction; and to form judgments. Thus, a practical aim is achieved with historical fiction through the use of the historical method.

¹ McKinley Publishing Co.

² *The American People*, Muzzey, pp. 538-539.

Recent Tendencies in the Field of Geography

BY PROFESSOR M. E. BRANOM, HARRIS TEACHERS COLLEGE, ST. LOUIS

PROGRESS IN THE FIELD OF ACADEMIC GEOGRAPHY

Geographers are tending to restrict their activities to a study of human ecology. The closely related fields of plant and animal ecology have been relinquished to the biologist. A mere description of a region is not geography. A consideration of the resources of a region with reference to former, existing, or potential uses by man is geography. Physical geography has been subordinated to human geography. An organized study involves the questions (1) What adjustments are the people making to environmental conditions?, (2) Why are the people making these adjustments?, and (3) What readjustments to environmental conditions should be made? The interpretation of a relationship involves a consideration of the physical background and a consideration of the factors which cause people to establish the relationship. While merely a knowledge of the existence of influencing physical phenomena is necessary in explaining the relationship, an increased appreciation and understanding of the physical background is secured if an attempt is also made to explain the physical phenomena. Thus physical geography is stressed, but as a subordinate factor in a unit whose core is human ecology.

The viewpoint that geography is a study of the interacting relations of man and nature is rather firmly established. The chief problem of the geographer today is to discover and interpret these relationships. Places as such are not cores, but merely indicate the locations of discovered relationships. There are some tendencies to enlarge the conception of geography so as to include all sorts of relationships in which man functions, but the more conservative geographers stress the influence of nature on man and the influence of man on nature as the line of research through which geography can make its most important contributions.

Most research studies, prior to the last decade, involved a sequential historical presentation of a geographic interpretation of a region. A study of St. Louis, for example, involved a consideration of (1) the Indians in the St. Louis area, (2) the Frenchmen in the St. Louis area, (3) the Spaniards in the St. Louis area, (4) the coming of the American pioneers, and (5) modern developments. The student today begins with the last topic of the outline. He makes a survey of existing conditions and then utilizes present-day influences and historic momentum to explain the existing conditions. Under the previous plan the student moved along the highway of time on the alert for anything of interest that he could find; under the present plan the student discovers a problem and attempts to interpret it. Purposeful effort has been substituted for the haphazard accumulation of facts.

Many inaccurate general statements have been incorporated in the social inheritance of geographic content. Such statements are due to lack of adequate study of relevant details or to the tendency to deal in a general manner with large areas in which marked differences of natural phenomena and human adjustments exist. The present generation of geographers insists that general statements must stand the test of a complete study of the facts which form the bases for generalizations. Since average conditions, applicable to a large area, exist only as an hypothetical possibility, the research student is encouraged to select a small area for detailed study. Out of such studies a mass of refined, accurate, and useful information is slowly being accumulated.

The depicting of actual conditions in restricted areas rather than general conditions requires an intimate acquaintanceship with such areas. Consequently, there is a tendency toward specialization in some one division of geography. Such specialization not only has resulted in the acquisition and presentation of accurate knowledge, but also has led to a world-wide co-operative endeavor. The time is past when even an eminent geographer can write authoritatively concerning a large region. A new era of writing is dawning in which a trained geographer will have full editorial supervision of the contributions made by highly trained specialists in each part that helps to make the whole.

The new geography includes a detailed study of restricted areas, which ultimately because of the multiplication of such studies, will lead to a clearer vision of the earth as a whole. The various parts of the earth's picture will be pieced together so as to give the student a unified conception of widely distributed groups that live not unto themselves alone. This development of a planetary consciousness will go far toward the ultimate realization of the brotherhood of man.

The stress formerly placed on physical geography did not give the student a vivid impression concerning the people and their activities. An eminent geographer recently stated that he had written about the geography of Mexico, but was surprised to find, on visiting this country, that he had a meager conception concerning the people themselves. An attempt is being made to present the content of geography in such a manner that the reader will have a sympathetic insight into the thoughts, feelings, and activities of various groups of people.

The modern geographer attempts (1) to get the facts, (2) to interpret the facts, and (3) to apply the facts. There is an increasing tendency to stress the practical value of geography. Through discoveries and inventions man is constantly readjusting himself to the physical conditions of his environment. In

many localities, however, adjustment of an earlier period are retained even though readjustments in harmony with changing conditions are desirable. Society is attempting to substitute scientific progress for haphazard progress. The geographer is beginning to make his distinctive contribution. Several intensive studies of restricted areas recently have been made to discover whether the people are taking full advantage of the resources furnished by nature. Changes, which probably will contribute to the greater prosperity of the regions, are indicated. The geographer is rendering a signal service in discovering potential markets for surplus products, and in discovering regions of potential production for articles that people desire.

Paradoxical as it may seem, the geographer who specializes narrowly, must be trained broadly. Geography, as a study of relationships, has its roots both in the social and the physical sciences. An interpretation of these relationships involves an intimate acquaintanceship with the content of both fields. Therefore, the geographer in training, in addition to numerous courses in his field, needs a battery of reinforcement courses in social and physical sciences. Requirements in these respects are becoming more exacting.

PROGRESS IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATIONAL GEOGRAPHY

Progress in academic geography has had its counterpart in the field of educational geography. Increasing emphasis has been placed on rationalization rather than memorization. Scientific progress is dependent on man's ability to reflect, to plan, and to execute. Problem geography is gradually supplanting place and descriptive geography. Factual material is still very important, but facts are secured and used to assist in the interpretation of a problem. In its initial stages the problem method frequently involved the standardized topical outline capped with a problematic question. Topics were listed under a problem that could not possibly assist in its interpretation. It is exceedingly difficult to discover a suitable list of vital problems that will require the mastery of all the facts commonly associated with a topical outline. Perhaps facts, for which no use can be found in vital situations, should be eliminated. The pioneer attempts in problem work are being gradually superseded by attempts to find problems with a pronounced geographic flavor. After such a problem has been raised and concisely stated, an attempt is made to meet the conditions of the challenge irrespective of whether all the details are geographic. As long as the dominating factors are geographic the problem may be considered within the province of geography. Overlapping details in a succession of problems constitute a review in a new view. Students secure facts and locate places as a part of problem work. After such facts have been secured, the pupils are prepared to classify them for possible use in succeeding situations by means of a topical outline. Pupils should work toward rather than from the standardized topical outline.

Journey geography and type studies are intimately related. Type studies should be placed with reference

to transportation routes. A journey, whether real or imaginary, acquaints the pupil with cultural and physical phenomena. The tendency is to study fewer topics which permits the introduction of a wealth of relevant details. Type studies may be approached through journey geography, or journey geography may lead to type studies. The detailed study of a type adds vividness and reality to the situation; an imaginary journey has similar advantages. There is a tendency to substitute integrating centers for type studies. One situation may present a point of departure for a study of numerous related situations. The enlarging whole remains related in meaningful unity.

The contract method of teaching has been introduced experimentally in some schools. This method requires the resolution of the course into a series of units of reasonable length. The pupil is given a set of detailed directions for mastering each unit. In some instances the pupil is required to master the unit within a given time; in other instances the pupil masters the unit as quickly as possible and proceeds to the next unit on an individual basis. The pupils may work exclusively on an individual basis or occasionally participate in discussions of units studied. Geography lends itself admirably to this method of study, provided standards are definitely established and the achievement of pupils adequately checked.

Under the question and answer method of teaching, the teacher ordinarily consumes a large proportion of the recitation period. Under the problem method the teacher gets the problem before the class and with a minimum of participation directs in a general way the class discussion. She occasionally asks questions and maintains the discussion on a profitable level, but the existence of a problem that requires the consideration of a large number of details permits the pupils to utilize most of the time.

Definite attempts are made to interest the pupils in the lesson units. While geography is one of the most concrete of subjects, it too frequently has been taught as a series of generalized abstractions. The tendency to teach by means of numerous illustrations and by means of a wealth of concrete details enhances the probability that children will become deeply interested. The teacher attempts to arouse within the pupil a sympathetic attitude toward the work. She appeals to his experiences and she draws on history, current events, or local conditions to increase his interest. She creates situations that require his participation and contributions if the work is to go forward with success. She encourages him to exercise initiative by permitting him to assist in formulating the general plans and by encouraging him to discover supplementary facts bearing on the lesson unit. She is quicker to praise him for his virtues than to blame him for his mistakes. A pupil may exchange letters with pupils in other regions, or he may write to railroad companies, steamship companies, chambers of commerce, state departments, national departments, and manufacturers, for descriptive literature. The recitation period permits him to utilize his discoveries in a social situation. Still pictures, lantern slides,

stereographs, moving pictures, and the radio offer additional opportunities of arousing interest. The problem method, because of purposes that it sets up, is a probable source of arousing interest.

Abundant provision is made for expression work. The pupil will probably be interested in his work if he can observe tangible products of achievement. In response to the demand numerous expression books, variously called practice tests, work books, reference books, etc., have been published. Such books in general involve definite things to be done. The pupil proceeds systematically from point to point until he has finished the exercise. The exercises are so organized that they can be interwoven with the daily assignments. Minimum essentials are stressed, although the books permit selections according to the requirements of a particular course of study. Some of these expression books are so comprehensive that they become nuclei around which the course of study is developed. Map projects have also come into vogue. Under this plan the pupil shows the distribution of assigned facts on an outline map through which he makes certain discoveries. The discoveries result in the formulation of definite questions that he attempts to answer. Expression work takes various forms.

Expression work is merely a phase of the larger concept of visual education that is so important in geography. Special studies show that moving pictures are superior to the printed page for certain topics. During the past few years a large company has invested thousands of dollars in providing moving pictures for geography classes. Still pictures, which will permit a pupil to make accurate statements concerning the things shown, are taking the place of pictures that require a liberal use of the imagination. The ear as well as the eye is being trained to build up spatial patterns. The radio is not used in geography as frequently as the picture screen, but the geographer is beginning to utilize it for its inherent value in developing a concept of the distribution of places and the unity of the earth as well as for programs of a geographic nature that are occasionally given.

The long list of place names, and mere enumeration of products, which were used as drills, are gradually disappearing. Fewer skeletonized statements permit a detailed descriptive and causal consideration of selected topics. The selection and amplification of fewer topics involves many details, including names of minor places, that are not classed as minimum essentials. The selecting of important integrating centers for study, therefore, involves the stressing of facts of varying value. Every pupil should grasp the important minimum essentials, but considerable latitude should be permitted in the mastery of minor details of exchangeable values.

Supplementary readers have been made so interesting that teachers have tended to use them as textbooks. Under such conditions the textbook becomes a supplementary reference book. Some geographers have expressed a hope that textbooks will continue to present only a skeletonized account of topics. Publishers, however, have been quick to recognize the

reasons for the popularity of supplementary readers and they have begun to use similar methods in the construction of textbooks. Geographic textbooks are passing through a transitional experimental stage. They should incorporate all the values that will contribute to good teaching, while a supplementary reader may consistently present only one point of view. The time is ripe for a textbook that will be re-enforced by its own special set of supplementary readers.

As late as 1920 a writer found considerable difficulty in compiling a few thousand words on tests in geography. Since this date a book, devoted exclusively to the measurement of achievement in geography, has appeared. The tendency toward definiteness in teaching has made objective tests possible; the devising of objective tests has encouraged teachers to set up definite requirements. The desirability as well as the difficulty of devising suitable objective tests has long been recognized. Both teacher and pupils can effect a marked saving in time and energy. Through the use of incomplete sentences and a choice of answers, experiments next were conducted with reference to the facts of geography. Finally, attempts were made to measure problem geography. In the initial attempts the course of study was merely sampled. Today, however, tests, which cover systematically and comprehensively the field of elementary geography, are available. Tests vary from those that require merely the mechanical work of drawing straight lines and making crosses to those that require complete sentences. The tendency is to test separately (1) the location of places, (2) factual geography, and (3) problem geography. In the offing, however, is the possibility that these three phases will be blended.

In the higher educational institutions of the United States, geography has generally been an offspring of geology. The emphasis, consequently, has been placed on physical geography, which has led to the classification of geography as a physical science. The emphasis is now placed on the "relations of man and nature" and a substantial proportion of a modern geography deals with man's activities. Since both physical and human factors enter into a geographic relationship, it is feasible to approach a study of a geographic unit either from the standpoint of physical influences or human adjustments. In the elementary schools curriculum makers have seen the superiority of the cultural approach in meeting the needs and interests of children. Consequently, geography in our public schools has become intimately associated with the social sciences. Geography presumably may be logically classified either with the physical or social sciences, but as an integral part of a unified elementary curriculum, the social science classification is in the ascendancy.

OPPORTUNITIES IN THE FIELD OF GEOGRAPHY

At the beginning of the present decade, the feeling was still general that geography was a subject so elementary in nature that it was adapted only to elementary and high schools. Courses on a college level were given chiefly to re-enforce some other sub-

ject. The influence of European thought and the signal success of the few departments established in colleges and universities have brought about a complete reversal of thought. College courses and research work are providing better teachers and richer content. So rapidly has this field grown that the demand for thoroughly trained teachers still exceeds the supply. A virgin field has been opened in our generation and large opportunities for service exist for the capable and industrious.

The recognition of the social sciences has created a demand for teachers who have a thorough preparation in history, geography, and related subjects. The demand for teachers of this type far exceeds the supply. The social science program is now in a tran-

sitional experimental period during which the course of study will be refined, suitable equipment will be provided, and teachers will be suitably trained.

Geography teachers will co-operate in this movement. The National Council of Geography Teachers, organized in 1914, has a membership of three thousand teachers. It maintains an active organization in at least twenty States. It publishes one of the outstanding educational periodicals of the country under the name of *The Journal of Geography*. THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, under the capable direction of Professor McKinley, has performed a similar function in the field of history. With two such national periodicals to point out the way, continued progress in the field of the social sciences is assured.

The History of Sociology in the High School

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The appearance of sociology in the high school curriculum followed rather closely upon the establishment of the subject as a field of study in the college and university. Fifty-three years ago, Yale University offered the first college course in sociology.¹ Other universities and colleges in the eastern and middle western sections soon followed its lead in establishing similar courses. The period from 1876 to 1892 was the period of experiment in the introduction of sociology into the college curriculum. After the later date, in the opinion of Dr. Small,² sociology rapidly became firmly entrenched as a recognized branch of instruction in colleges.

Sociologists were not, however, immediately prepared to recommend the introduction of sociology into the high school. In 1894, thirty-four of the leading sociologists in the country were emphatic in their statements that the subject did not belong in the college preparatory school. Three others were of the opinion that a course below the college level would be of doubtful utility, chiefly because of a lack of suitable texts. Only two were enthusiastic in their recommendations for a course in sociology in a college preparatory institution.³

Seventeen years later, sociology was being taught as a separate subject in at least two high schools in the Middle West.⁴ For the next four or five years reports of single experiments from high schools here and there throughout the country proved the gradual increase in sociological instruction.

The second study, the aim of which was to determine the spread of sociology as a high school subject, was made in 1918. This was the first of a series of studies made between 1918 and 1928. The States canvassed for information were Massachusetts,⁵ Connecticut,⁶ Kansas,⁷ Iowa,⁸ Colorado,⁹ and Washington, the situation in the last-named State having been the

subject for two reports, one in 1926,¹⁰ and the other in 1928.¹¹ The data in these studies, which is shown in Table I, prove that there has been in the last ten years a steady increase in the number of high schools offering sociology, and offer a reasonably safe basis for the conclusion that sociology has been in general slowly but steadily increasing in favor as a high school subject.

Sociology apparently has been making more rapid progress toward general favor in the West than in the East, since the figures for the years 1923 and 1924 showed that a larger per cent. of the number of high schools considered in the studies for Iowa and Colorado included sociology in their curricula than was true of the high schools reported upon in the Connecticut and Massachusetts studies. In Kansas there was found in 1927 the largest number of schools offering sociology,¹² but in the State of Iowa three years earlier the largest per cent. of the total number of schools considered in the report gave formal instruction in sociology.¹³ The study of the status of sociology in the high schools of Connecticut in 1923 showed that out of fifty-one high schools contributing information, only one offered a course in sociology.¹⁴

Of the seven studies recording the situation in regard to the offerings in sociology in the separate States, those for the States of Kansas and Washington are the most valuable, because they contain figures for a series of years and give a basis for comparison. There was in Kansas an increase of approximately 33 per cent. in the number of the high schools contributing information for the study, which included sociology in their programs, between 1921, when the per cent. was .4, and 1927, when it was 34.1.¹⁵ In the State of Washington there was an increase in the number of schools considered in the

TABLE I
INVESTIGATIONS OF THE STATUS OF SOCIOLOGY IN HIGH
SCHOOLS IN SIX STATES

Author	Title	Date	Number of Schools Reporting to Study	Number of Schools Offering Course	Per Cent of Schools Offering Course
Bain	Social Studies in the State of Washington	1918	*	*	.2
Malin	Social Studies in Kansas High Schools	1921	204	1	.4
Bain	Sociology in Washington High Schools	1921	*	40	*
Bain	Sociology in Washington High Schools	1922	*	35	*
Bain	Sociology in Washington High Schools	1923	*	59	*
Murphy	History in Massachusetts High Schools	1923	*	6	3.61
Murphy	New England Survey—Connecticut	1923	51	1	.2
Stevens	Status of Social Studies in Colorado	1923	57	13	22.4
Bain	Sociology in Washington High Schools	1924	*	76	*
Hurd	Status of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Iowa	1924	234	158	67.5
Malin	Social Studies in Kansas High Schools	1927	600	305	34.1
Bain	Social Studies in the State of Washington	1928	97	41	43.4

* No data given in study.

report, which had courses in sociology, from .2 in 1918 to 43.4 per cent. in 1928.¹⁶

Not only has there been a great increase in the number of high schools in Washington offering sociology, but also a marked increase in the total enrollment in the subject. There was an enrollment of 789 in forty high schools in 1921, and 2,045 in seventy-six high schools in 1924.¹⁷ An increase of 160 per cent. in total pupil enrollments over the period of four years was found, in addition to a 90 per cent. increase in the number of schools offering sociology in 1924 over those offering the subject in 1921.¹⁸ The author was of the opinion that the increase shown would continue, because sociology was a new subject and had not reached its saturation point in 1924. There are not, however, at present, figures available to check the prophecy.

There have been published between 1919 and 1928 five investigations of various aspects of the social studies in the high schools which contain information relative to the status of sociology in groups of States. Two of these studies, one published in 1920 and the other in 1922, were compiled from information furnished by high schools in the North Central Association. Although 1,180 schools were represented in the report of C. O. Davis on training for citizenship,¹⁹ and less than 50 per cent. of that number in the Monroe and Foster study in 1922,²⁰ there was a gain of 7.6 per cent. in the number of high schools offering sociology.

The studies and others listed in Table II tell the same story of the gradual increase of the number of courses in sociology in high schools. In 1919, when the Committee for Teaching Citizenship published the results of its inquiry, only 5 per cent. of the total number of high schools which sent information for the study were found to be offering instruction in formal sociology.²¹

Two years later, Moore's study for the United States Bureau of Education showed that 25.1 per cent. of the contributing high schools included sociology in their courses of study.²² Of the total number of high schools which answered the questionnaire for the *History Inquiry*, 23.6 per cent. were offering sociology.²³ The decrease of more than 1 per cent. in a year in the number of high schools where sociology was taught, which a comparison of the two last reports brings out, may be explained by the fact that reports from 6,624 schools were used for the earlier study,²⁴ as against those from 2,404 schools in the second study.²⁵ It is very possible that, since there was about one-third less high schools contributing information to the second report, some of the schools which included sociology in their courses of study, and which sent information to the first investigator, did not make reports for the second.

It is impossible at this time, on a basis of available data, to estimate even approximately the number of high schools in the country which are offering courses in sociology.

The growing popularity of sociology as a subject suitable for the high school level of instruction is not limited to any one section of the country. Moore found in 1921-1922 that sociology was being taught in high schools in forty-four States; no high school from North Carolina, South Carolina, Mississippi, or New Mexico offered any instruction in formal sociology. Moore also reported that the highest per cent. of total enrollment in classes in sociology was in the high schools of North Dakota.²⁶ His data seemed to show that on the whole the subject of sociology was receiving more attention in the western and middle western States than in those high schools in other sections of the country. This conclusion is borne out by the facts in those studies of the situation in regard to sociology in single States. No survey of the situation has been made for a middle eastern or southern State, so no adequate comparison can be made between the eastern and western sections of the country.

The figures in the Monroe and Foster study, as compared with the figures in the Moore study and in the *History Inquiry*, would seem to indicate that sociology has become a more important addition to the courses of study of the high schools in the territory of the North Central Association than it has in high schools the country over.

The increasing importance of sociology in the high school is also shown by the fact that the subject has been recommended for the curriculum of the high school by departments of public instruction in thirteen States. These States represent in general the

TABLE II
DATA ON STATUS OF SOCIOLOGY IN INVESTIGATIONS OF THE
STATUS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Author	Title	Date	Number of Schools Reporting to Study	Number of Schools Offering Course in Sociology	Per Cent of Schools Offering Course in Sociology
National Committee for Teaching of Citizenship	Preparation for Citizenship	1919	5054 Schools in U. S.	255	5
Davis	Training for Citizenship in North Central Association of Secondary Schools	1920	1180 North Central Assn. Schools	298	25.2
Moore	Present Status of the Social Studies in the High Schools of U. S.	1921—1922	6624 High Schools in U. S.	1666	25.1
Monroe and Foster	Status of the Social Studies in High Schools of the North Central Association	1922	475 High Schools in the N.C.A.	156	32.8
Dawson	The History Inquiry	1924	3404 Schools in U. S.	568	23.6

southern and western sections of the United States. The northeastern section of United States is not represented.

Certain definite features are characteristic of the development of sociology in the high school, as indicated by the facts presented above. Educational authorities began to awaken to the value of sociology in the high school shortly after the subject became established as a field of instruction in universities and colleges. There has been a definite trend toward formal instruction in sociology in the high school in the last ten years, and there has been a steady increase in the offerings of the subject year by year. There seems to be a greater interest in sociology in the high schools of the middle and far west than in high schools in the eastern and southern sections of the United States. The appearance of the subject is not, however, limited to any one section of the country. Sociology is being recommended for the high school in various courses of study published by State departments of instruction. All data point to the fact that

sociology is making a permanent place for itself in the curriculum of the American high school.

¹ C. H. Walker, "Sociology at Yale," *Popular Science Monthly*, XVII (June, 1885), p. 268.

² A. W. Small, "Fifty Years of Sociology in the United States," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXI (May, 1916), p. 729.

³ I. W. Howarth, "Sociology in the United States," *Annals of the American Academy*, VI (September, 1894), pp. 112-21.

⁴ J. M. Gillette, "Sociology as a High School Subject," *Educational Review*, XLV (March, 1913), p. 261.

⁵ Joseph Murphy, "History in the Massachusetts High School," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV (December, 1923), pp. 406-10.

⁶ Joseph Murphy, "The New England Survey—Connecticut," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XV (December, 1924), pp. 407-9.

⁷ J. C. Malin, "Historical and Social Sciences in Kansas High Schools," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVIII (January, 1927), pp. 22-24.

⁸ Ray Hurd, "Status of the Social Studies in the High Schools of Iowa," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Department of Education, University of Iowa, 1924.

⁹ W. S. Stevens, "Status of Social Studies in Colorado High Schools," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIV (December, 1923), pp. 370-71.

¹⁰ Reed Bain, "Sociology in Washington High Schools," *School Review*, XXXIX (September, 1926), pp. 535-42.

¹¹ Reed Bain, "Social Studies in the State of Washington," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIX (November, 1928), pp. 329-34.

¹² J. C. Malin, *Op. cit.*, p. 23.

¹³ Ray Hurd, *Op. cit.*, pp. 65-66.

¹⁴ Joseph Murphy, *Op. cit.*, p. 407.

¹⁵ J. C. Malin, *Op. cit.*, p. 23.

¹⁶ Reed Bain, "Social Studies in the State of Washington," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIX (November, 1928), p. 329.

¹⁷ Reed Bain, "Sociology in Washington High Schools," *School Review*, XXXIX (September, 1926), p. 538.

¹⁸ Reed Bain, *Op. cit.*, p. 539.

¹⁹ C. O. Davis, "Training for Citizenship in the North Central Association of Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), p. 258.

²⁰ W. S. Monroe and I. O. Foster, *The Status of the Social Sciences in the High Schools of the North Central Association*, Bulletin No. 13, University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XX, No. 18. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1922, p. 36.

²¹ J. K. Hart, "Social Science in the Schools," *Survey*, XLVI (August, 1921), p. 592.

²² H. H. Moore, *Status of Certain Social Studies in the High School*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 45, Washington, Government Printing Office, 1922, p. 14.

²³ Edgar Dawson, "The History Inquiry," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XV (June, 1924), p. 255.

²⁴ H. H. Moore, *Op. cit.*, p. 14.

²⁵ Edgar Dawson, *Op. cit.*, p. 255.

²⁶ H. H. Moore, *Op. cit.*, p. 14.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

There will be two Joint Sessions of the American Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies at the annual meeting, to be held at Duke University, Durham, N. C. The morning session, December 30th, will include the following program:

Report of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, A. C. Krey, Chairman. The Possibility of Testing Values in the Social Studies, Truman L. Kelley, Psychologist-Adviser on Measurement to the Investigation. Discussion led by Harry J. Carman, Columbia University; O. M. Dickerson, Colorado State Teachers College; F. Duncalf, University of Texas;

Lawrence B. Packard, Amherst College; and Richard H. Shryock, Duke University.

A luncheon of the American Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies, on December 30th, includes the following program:

Are There Regional Differences in the Teaching of the Social Studies? Edgar Dawson, Hunter College. General discussion.

In the September issue of *Journal of Educational Research*, A. S. Barr and C. W. Grifford reported an investigation of "The Vocabulary of American History." Eight

textbooks, intended for use at the senior high school level, were analyzed, with definite rule for the mechanical procedure in the tabulation of words. One of these rules was the exclusion of the first 3,000 words in the Thorndike lists. Ten criteria were used in the selection of words. Data are presented in four tables, and a list of 1,899 words ranking highest in frequency in the investigation is appended. Some of the findings may be summarized as follows: (1) Not including the first 3,000 words in the Thorndike list and other words ruled out by the criteria for selection, about 7,631 words occur in the eight representative texts; (2) the first 1,900 words included all words found in 75 per cent. of the texts; (3) 34 per cent. of all tabulated words occurred only once in all eight textbooks; (4) there is considerable variation both in net number of words and in the ratio of tabulated words to net total words in the different textbooks.

There are three chapters in William H. Burton, ed., *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects* (D. Appleton & Co., 1929), which are of interest to teachers of the social studies. Henry M. Leppard contributes "The Supervision of Geography"; Mary G. Kelty, "The Supervision of History"; and Howard C. Hill, "The Supervision of Elementary Civics." Although the purpose of the volume, as stated by the editor, is "to supply the generalist...with a brief, compact summary of material of value to him in supervising the various elementary school subjects" (p. v), the treatment in the three chapters mentioned above is of such a character as to merit careful reading and study by teachers and special supervisors.

Leppard outlines the new approach to the study of geography, states the objectives of geography, discusses basic considerations in the construction of a course of study, presents certain guiding principles for the organization of units, outlines a course of study for grades four through eight in some detail, mentions important items in the technique of teaching, discusses briefly certain types of tests, mentions criteria for the selection of reading material and equipment, and concludes the chapter with a presentation of essential items in geographic literature and a partial bibliography.

Kelty, in a chapter of more than one hundred pages, discusses and evaluates the objectives of the teaching of history with a tabular view of objectives listed by committees and authors, and presents a general survey of courses of study followed by a discussion of principles and practices in the selection and organization of subject-matter, with illustrations taken from courses of study. Methods of teaching are considered by grades; there is a suggestive fourteen-page outline of types of errors with suggestions for remedial treatment, followed by outlines of items to observe in teaching and of essential elements in children's performance in the classroom. The measurement of results, check-lists for the study of the performance of the individual child, equipment, and an introduction to the pedagogical literature are discussed at some length. In addition to the tables, check-lists, and outlines, the author mentions problems for further investigation by the supervisor. There are 116 footnotes to significant material. A complete annotated bibliography is appended.

Hill states the objectives of elementary civics, discusses and evaluates different types of courses, presents a concrete description of methods with illustrative materials, lists and discusses essential equipment and materials, and concludes with a presentation of available tests and the place of tests and a brief survey of the pedagogical literature. There is a bibliography appended.

"Courses of Study in History for Children Under Eleven," a memorandum by the Council of the English Historical Association, forwarded to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, published in the July issue of *History* (London), is an important statement which deserves wide reading in this country.

"The history course designed for children between seven and eleven should have three main objectives. It should

arouse imaginative sympathy with the great historical figures which exemplify the heroic virtues and other qualities which children of this age most readily appreciate. It should widen the children's mental horizon by an imaginative reconstruction of conditions differing from those to which they are accustomed. And it should awaken their interest in their own surroundings in such a way as to make them realize their link with the past; it should both stimulate and satisfy their curiosity as to the history of the objects and customs with which they are familiar" (p. 110).

Following the foregoing introductory paragraph, the suggestion is made that the governing situation in the selection of subject-matter is the child's own intellectual needs, but that future use must also be considered. Materials for pupils of seven to nine years should be drawn from the whole range of general history, and include some treatment of pre-history romantic tales of action, and great epic stories. Materials for pupils nine to eleven years of age should be selected mainly from stories of English history and foreign history connected with it. Interest in nationality and curiosity as to social background are easily aroused, and personalities and social development should receive attention. The history of exploration, inventions, colonial expansion, and transportation offer useful material.

The classroom work must center about story-telling—an essential qualification of the teacher—but the applications of the story should always be made by the individual. Sense of time, handwork to illustrate development, dramatics, illustrative materials, are some of the elements to receive attention. No marked change should be made in the rural program from that of the city, but the teacher can probably work with pupils in two groups—seven to nine years, and nine to eleven years.

In the October issue of *Current History*, Wilbur C. Abbott contributes "New Methods of Writing History: A Criticism." In the body of the discussion, which centers about a review of Esme Wingfield-Stratford, *The History of British Civilization* (Harcourt, Brace & Co. 2 vols.), the writer points out the shortcomings of the "new history" as follows: (1) the advocates of the history of the common man fail to see that it is what men think and feel that really matters, and not what they eat and wear; it is what the leaders achieve that is important historically, not what the masses imitate; (2) the "new history" is description, not narration, and is lacking in "plot," action, and continuity, which lend interest to history; (3) the "new history" does not stress chronology, facts, and dates, which must be mastered in order to obtain an understanding of history. The writer finds much to commend in the volumes under consideration.

"The Correlation of School and University Teaching" (of History), reported by G. Talbot Griffith in the April issue of *History* (London), includes a partial statement of an address by E. L. Woodward, All Souls' College and New College, Oxford University, who spoke from the point of view of boys' schools; a digest of the remarks of K. G. Felling, of Christ Church, who considered the subject from the standpoint of the University Entrance Scholarships, and a digest of the discussion by Miss M. V. Clarke, of Somerville College, who considered the subject in relation to girls' schools.

Mr. Woodward stressed the difficulties faced by the school: (1) One master has to teach fields which are not his specialty; (2) lack of library facilities and sufficient duplication of titles; and (3) the fact that much of the subject-matter, particularly of modern history, is beyond the comprehension and range of interest of schoolboys. From the point of view of the college, the history school in the institution should not be designed for the training of scholars, but rather it should serve to educate students to understand modern civilization. Another school is being provided for post-graduate studies. The college would like to see the (public) school improve in the subjects ancillary to history; that is, geography, languages, some

elements of geology, and physical sciences. Most men coming to college cannot read French and German with facility, and practically none read Italian and Spanish. The examinations furnish an opportunity for correlation, but there seems to be a danger that the standards have been raised beyond the capacities of those to be examined. It is suggested that the universities and the schools exchange teachers at times for the mutual benefit of both types of institutions.

Mr. Feiling, in the discussion of examinations for the University Entrance Scholarships, suggested that the historical paper be retained, even though he deplored the cramming of the weaker candidates and the use of certain books. He suggested: (1) The use of a serious oral, in place of the written, examination; (2) closer correlation between history and English literature; and (3) the setting of an examination to include history and literature on a particular period, without prescribing any set books.

Miss M. V. Clarke said that scholarship candidates relied too much on memory and too little on independent use of facts; they depend too much on preparation for a particular examination; their lack of knowledge of geography and chronology is deplorable. A general discussion followed, and is reported at some length.

C. R. Cruttwell, in "The Teaching of Political Science at the Public Schools and Universities," in the July issue of *History* (London), is opposed to the study of political science as a separate subject in schools. The subject-matter of real value is beyond the comprehension of pupils; the time devoted to such study is limited; the teacher of strong personality might gain unsatisfactory results, in that pupils' minds would be set before they had proper evidence and requisite experience required to arrive at conclusions. Instead of separate courses, history and ethics and religious teaching could be brought closer together. Comparative studies of different countries at the same period of time can be used to show how nations have developed. The study and analysis of constitutions has no place in the school curriculum.

Political science, as a separate study, may be started in the university, at about nineteen to twenty-one years of age, when the student's range of interests is broadening, when he is able to do consciously creative reading, when

the danger that the teacher's views may be accepted are counteracted by greater age, variety of reading required, facility of expression, and attendance at lectures which present every point of view.

An increasing number of work-books and manuals in the social studies intended for use by pupils have been published during the last few years. E. T. Smith, *A New Approach to European History: Students Guide Sheets* (University of Chicago Press, 1929. Pp. xiv + 122. 90c.), is a manual intended for use in courses in Early European History. Although the author does not emphasize the use of the term "unit," the unitary plan of organization is apparently followed in the seven chapters in which the materials are grouped. Each chapter includes an introductory statement, an outline, a series of problems with questions and suggestions, a list of "Special Problems and Studies," map studies, and a bibliography. Some of the references are listed by chapters or pages. A "List of Books for a Working Library" is appended.

The author emphasizes materials which deal with the development of civilization and the changing elements which comprised the content of civilization in different periods. The outlines carry this theme, and the subject-matter which is implied often seems to displace much of the older and more conventional content.

Another manual, Nellie L. Holmes, *Outline Workbook for American History* (Henry Holt & Co., 1929. Pp. vi + 250), is organized about a series of twenty-five topics, beginning with "Discovery and Exploration" and concluding with "Readjustment and Problems of Today." Each topic included page references to a series of textbooks, spaces for detailed outlines with the main headings listed, and supplementary exercises of different types. There is also a section of topical reviews, comprising sixty pages, which includes such topics as foreign affairs and immigration, outline reviews of presidential administrations, review drills on government and historical terms and titles, and sample test questions. A sheaf of outline maps is included at the end of the volume. A "Minimum Reference Library" is provided. The *Epochs of American History* series, as listed, does not include the volumes by Jernegan and Bassett.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Robert Macrhay attempts to unravel the Manchurian tangle in the October *Fortnightly Review*. This tangle is not as yet war, although acts of war have taken place on the frontier. War itself between China and Russia is not as yet in sight, according to Japanese opinion, and Japan is the best able to judge and sum up the situation in which she is so vitally interested. Acts of war may have been intended by the Soviet Government to expedite matters. It was on the cards that the Soviets were in earnest and were determined on war, not so much to compel China to reinstate Russian rights in the railway, but as a possible, if desperate, way out from an economic situation that daily became worse and worse and threatened Russia with absolute ruin. The Soviet Government does have a strong case against the Nanking Government. The gist of the business is that China arbitrarily and provocatively took entire possession of the Chinese Eastern Railway in contravention of treaty agreement between her and Russia as arranged in 1924. In that treaty Russia engaged to refrain from all propaganda which might be harmful to the public order and to the stabilization of the Chinese Government. China declares this has not been kept. Soviet propaganda in or against China is now offered as an excuse for action respecting the railway—action for the elimination of all foreign interests in China, with or without pretext assigned. It is on this alone that it carries all China with it; it is on this alone that all China may be said to be unified.

Quite a new angle to the extraterritorial issue in China is that presented by E. M. Gull in the *Nineteenth Century* for October. He says that of the forty-nine places where the Chinese Maritime Customs function, and where foreigners are allowed to live and trade, only six—Canton, Amoy, Shanghai, Chingkiang, Tientsin, Hankow—have extraterritoriality associated with foreign administration in concessions and settlements. These settlements and concessions comprise about twenty square miles, or 0.001 per cent. of the total area of China proper, and they occupy only a small part of the ports in which they are situated. Foreign administration is limited to municipal and political control. An associated misconception is that extraterritoriality deprives the Chinese authority of considerable revenue and so prevents them from undertaking necessary public works. It certainly deprives them of the revenue that might for a time be produced by miscellaneous taxation, such as is levied locally in China, but it deprives them of little revenues accruing from regular taxes authorized by central government. A third misconception is that because extraterritoriality confines the right of foreign residence to the Treaty Ports, it is an obstacle to the spread of foreign trade into the interior. At the Peking Tariff Conference in 1925-6 it was estimated that not more than 50 per cent. of the foreign import trade goes into the interior and the rest remains in treaty ports. Extraterritoriality is not responsible for the present distribution of China's foreign

trade. Factors that result in 50 per cent. of her import trade being done by 5 per cent. of her population are the concentration of the country's purchasing power in the coastal regions, the scarcity and insecurity of means of communication from the coastal region to the interior, and the domination of the interior's purchasing power by taxation of goods both in transit and at the destination. Another misconception is that of the origin of extraterritoriality in China. As a matter of fact, this is not a recent situation, but, on the contrary, it can be traced to the seventh century, and, as a matter of equal fact, was advocated by China throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The relation of the Moslem mind and the teachings of Christianity in China is the subject of an article in the October *Moslem World* by George K. Harris. While there are at least six racial strains, representing an equal number of occupations, these do not act independently, but instead form a sort of unity of mentality which reacts in a variety of ways to the doctrine taught by the missionaries. The Chinese Moslem, whatever his racial or occupational background, hides his real attitude behind a camouflage—argumentative, complacency, surprise, fear, or curiosity. When this is pierced then comes bigotry, ignorance, indifference, dissatisfaction, conviction, belief, to shape his conduct. Nor do his social nor his economic position count for aught in determining his reaction.

Cardinal Gasquet the Historian is the subject of an admirable bit of biographical analysis in the October *Catholic Historical Review* by Adrian Morey. He gives also a careful evaluation of the great Churchman's writings, and points out the fact that the greatest of his achievements as a historian was to open up new fields for research among neglected Archives and to suggest many new subjects for development. If in England today Catholics enjoy a place in the intellectual life of the country, Cardinal Gasquet has played his part in effecting the change.

Francis P. Magoun goes as far back into Anglo-Saxon records as the ninth-century Nennian *Historia Britonum* for references to football in Medieval England, and traces the progress of the game until the first part of the sixteenth century—Sir David Lindsay's Pleasant Satire (*American Historical Review* for October).

Those who are interested in the social history of the Orient will find the November number of *Asia* of peculiar interest. Excellent photographs give interesting glimpses of present-day Tokyo; Anna Louise Strong writes most ably on the problems of making Bolsheviks of the nomad

tribes of the deserts of central Asia, who, though they still believe in the characters of the Arabian Nights, are busy endeavoring to interpret Karl Marx. Liu T'uh-Yun has a charming account of The Singing-Girl, which is translated by Arthur Waley. E. M. Ellis traces the furrows Pekingward; and Olivia Price gives opinions held by the unspoiled Orientals on marriage, children, death, etc., in Live-True.

"There is a very clearly marked line of demarcation between the true Balkan State and the Balkanized and semi-Western State. Once at the Balkan frontier you know in an instant. Hungary, despite all its extravagant Occidental vulgarity, is not and never will be really Western; but it certainly is not Balkan. It is an unpleasing cross-breed. In the Balkans there is a set of gestures indicative of thought that are completely and fundamentally different from those in use in Western countries. No wonder the Balkan States are the ideal breeding grounds of conspiracies and secret societies, when means of communications are so often those of silence and gestures. Montenegro today is a sad and moving spectacle. Cetinje, the most romantic of all Balkan cities, lies dead, its king gone, its legations closed, its palaces derelict. The peasants still linger, but their day is over. They still have stability and the certainty of peaceful cultivation of their lands, but their country is absorbed in the comforts and consolations of a larger land. They remain now only something for tourists to wonder at." These reflections on Balkanomania in the current *Atlantic* are part of a most interesting and sympathetic study of the Near East by Stanley Casson.

Norman Angell's speculations as to developments which may materialize during the next half century are decidedly thought provoking (September *London Spectator*). The superiority of America and her economic predominance are not to be explained by the superiority of natural resources, but by the fact that the States have a political unity which Europe has not. If the course of historical development in North America had been more like that of South America, so that English-speaking America had been as much divided as Spanish-speaking America—if in what is now the United States there existed not one nation, but a dozen rival nations—we should not now be talking about American power and predominance in the world. Large-scale industries as we know it would not exist. If Henry Ford had had to drive his car not over indifferent country roads, but over a dozen hostile tariff barriers into States, each one of which was determined to have its own patriotic, 100 per cent. Henry Ford, and if Massachusetts had always been talking of the competition of its trade with that of Pennsylvania and Michigan, well, of course, there would have been no Henry Ford.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLETT BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

European Financial Control in the Ottoman Empire. By Donald C. Blaisdell. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. 243 pp.

As one of the relatively undeveloped, though naturally highly-endowed, areas of the world, the Ottoman Empire, in the nineteenth century, presented a fertile and attractive field for the investment of Europe's surplus capital. While internal chaos and obsolete methods were making the Ottoman Government more and more dependent upon foreign financial aid, the empire itself was falling a prey to the expanding economic interests of Europe. It was the old story of European imperialism vs. native "backwardness." A crash came in 1875, when the Sultan's Government announced its intention of suspending half the interest payments on the foreign debt. Six years later, in 1881, the Decree of Mouharrem set up the Administration of the Ottoman Public Debt. The executive committee, or Council, of the Debt was composed of six delegates, representing

the British and Dutch, the French, the German, the Austro-Hungarian, the Italian, and the Turkish holders of Ottoman securities, and a seventh delegate representing the interests of the Imperial Ottoman Bank. This Administration remained in control of a large part of Turkish finances from 1881 until after the World War. It was largely an instrument of European imperialism, economic and political. Naturally, it bestowed certain very definite benefits upon the empire—mainly by affording "to the Government and to the population a striking example of the best features of European finance and administration." It was hardly to be expected, however, that the Turkish Nationalist Government under Mustapha Kemal Pasha would quietly permit this foreign financial control to continue. Having refused to confirm the Mouharrem Decree in the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, the Turks soon entered into negotiations with the bondholders' representatives, and in February, 1928, a Draft Contract was drawn up, which, if it goes

into effect, will restore to the Turkish Government its complete "sovereign financial rights."

This, in merest skeleton form, is the story which Dr. Blaisdell tells in a straightforward, well-written account of some 240 pages. Dr. Blaisdell was in every way well-qualified to undertake the task of informing the world at large of the really enormous power and influence which the European-controlled Debt Administration wielded for several decades. He lived and taught in the Near East for a number of years, and then spent a full year doing research work on the subject in Constantinople, Berlin, Paris, and London. The volume is fully documented, and the footnotes give evidence of intensive research in the archives of the Public Debt in Constantinople, and of extensive interviews with many of the leading individuals connected with the Debt in one way or another.

Professor Earle points out in his Introduction to Dr. Blaisdell's book that "in the diversified but pertinent material which is here presented the reader may learn a great deal concerning the affairs of the former Ottoman Empire, the policies of the several Great Powers in the Near East before and since the Great War, the relative merits of financial tutelage of a 'backward' country, and the political implications of foreign investments." And the reviewer heartily recommends the study as an interesting analysis of the implications and ramifications of imperialist financial control in a weakly-ruled section of the globe. Dr. Blaisdell's volume should prove a welcome addition to the book shelf of every student of international relations and of world politics.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

Spain Overseas. By Bernard Moses. The Hispanic Society of America, New York, 1929. vi, 114 pp.

Bolívar, the Passionate Warrior. By T. R. Ybarra. Ives Washburn, New York, 1929. 365 pp.

Most Hispanic-American history scholars were afraid

that *The Intellectual Background of the Revolutions in South America*, published in 1926, would be the last work from the pen of Dr. Moses. But now appears the little volume under review, which is especially welcome as a fitting postscript to the many works of a noted historian.

In a short preface the author writes: "The following chapters are in effect marginal comments on some sections of the general history of Spanish-America, and one may refer to that history for light, in case the connection between these chapters does not appear to be clear. The aim of this volume is to emphasize certain topics, thought to be important, at the risk of passing by others of equal or even greater importance."

The subject-matter of the book is grouped into eight chapters, as follows: I. Spain in the Colonizing Period; II. Basis of Spanish Colonial Society; III. Developed and Less-Developed Races in Contact; IV. Mexico the Typical Spanish Colony; V. A Social Revolution and Its Consequences; VI. Spain's Successors in America; VII. The Spanish Régime in the Philippine Islands; and VIII. Spain's Successor in the Philippine Islands. An appendix is added, giving an extract from the official report of the meetings of the Philippine Commission. The index is brief but helpful.

Little more need be said about this work. It is quickly read and easily understood. In reality, it constitutes a synthesis of many scattered facts. In chapter IV, for example, there is a concise description of the office of the colonial viceroy, and elsewhere are clear treatments showing the prominence of the Catholic Church in Spanish national and colonial life. The book calls attention to numerous neglected points and emphasizes certain facts that need reiteration. It is the product of a ripe scholarship.

The biography of the great Venezuelan patriot, Simón Bolívar, is the second to appear in the United States within less than nine months. And as this review is written a third biography of the Liberator is announced for February, 1930. Not many years ago such literary activity concentrated upon one man in the field of Hispanic-American

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history would have been astounding, if not impossible.

The story, told here in a journalistic staccato, deals mainly with the years 1810 to 1830; that is to say, with the last half of Bolívar's life, for he was born in 1783 and died in 1830 at the age of 47. The author has succeeded in depicting a real, living hero, with the sordid glamour of the reality in which he lived. But the author is a hero-worshiper and a descendant of a Venezuelan, and his story is often told with anti-Spanish spirit and pro-Patriot proclivities. His descriptions of bloody fighting pulsate with vividness and are frequently excellent, for Bolívar and his compatriots fought to the death. A number of characters beside the Patriot are admirably portrayed. Among them are Miranda, Boves, Páez, and Sucre. On the whole, the background picture is accurate, and the volume should be read by students of the revolutionary period. But the author or publisher has marred the book by a surprising indifference to the use of Spanish accents. There is no index. From the bibliography it appears that Hispanic-American sources have been mainly relied upon, to the exclusion of several important ones in English.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

The Encomienda in New Spain: Forced Native Labor in the Spanish Colonies, 1492-1550. By Lesley Byrd Simpson. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1929. 297 pp. Price, \$3.50.

Since the publication of the first edition of Bartolomé de Las Casas' *Brief Relation of the Destruction of the Indies*, in 1552, historians have been influenced by this writer's highly colored account of the encomienda (the Indian trustee system). It is the purpose of Lesley Byrd Simpson's study to reconsider the evidence presented by Las Casas and other writers who followed him, also to appraise the newer evidence which recently has come to light. The author's arguments in the main are convincing, and unquestionably will alter many of the misconceptions about the inhumanity and general ineffectiveness of the Spanish rule in the New World. But Las Casas is not easily disposed of. Even Simpson admits the "nameless ferocities" perpetrated by the early Spanish invaders; moreover, his statement that other nations have been equally guilty of atrocities hardly supports his fundamental thesis. The wounds inflicted in past centuries fortunately have healed. To view a scar is quite different from observing the agonies produced by a festering sore. Las Casas, writing in the sixteenth century, is therefore not to be blamed too severely for his uncompromising attitude; from him a totally impartial record of contemporary events is not to be expected. No such alibi, however, exists in the case of more recent historians. Their unconditional surrender to some of the views expressed by Las Casas is unpardonable.

Simpson's monograph is a splendid example of painstaking and unbiased historical research. It should prove of interest both to the specialist in Spanish-American history and to the student of social and economic institutions.

FELIX FLUGEL.

Berkeley, California.

Book Notes

The third volume of *The Letters of Queen Victoria, Second Series. A Selection from Her Majesty's Correspondence and Journal Between the Years 1862-1885* (Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1928. xiii, 738 pp.). Edited by George Earle Buckle; covers the years 1879-1885. As in its predecessors, the correspondence which, if anything, is even more interesting than those printed in the earlier volumes, is arranged chronologically chapter by chapter. Each chapter is prefaced by an introductory statement, which summarizes the outstanding events around which the correspondence converges. One is impressed with the queen's close touch with what was going on, not only in the Empire, but in the European world, and by the vigor of her correspondence. Her letters to Gladstone, for example, exhibit deep insight into his plans and policies. Whether one is a student of British politics of this period or not, they will find this volume exceedingly informing and entertaining.

Teachers of American history who are anxious to supplement the textbook—and what teacher is not—will welcome A. E. Forman's *Sidelights on our Social and Economic History* (The Century Company, New York, 1928. xiii, 516 pp.). In content, it is made up of selections from a great many sources—mostly secondary—which portray various social and economic phases of our history. *Sidelights*, in other words, are thrown upon "the experiences of the farmer and the planter and the pioneer; upon the activities of manufacturers and merchants and bankers; upon the history of the agencies of transportation highways and canals and steamboats and railroads; upon the lives of the toiling masses—slaves and indentured servants and immigrants and wage-earners; upon the institutions of everyday life—religion and education and amusements and the domestic circle." It is difficult to see how a better selection could have been made for the purpose which Mr. Forman had in mind. For students who have only a limited amount of time at their disposal, and who want something more than is contained in the average text, this volume of readings is indispensable.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- The Interrelation of Social and Constitutional History. J. G. Randall (*American Historical Review*, October).
- The Conditions and Tendencies of Historical Writing Today. Corrado Barbagello (*Journal of Modern History*, June).
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- The Importance of the Class Struggle in Modern History. Halvdan Koht (*Journal of Modern History*, September).
- New Historical Documents in Greek and Roman History. W. L. Westermann (*American Historical Review*, October).
- The Age of Pericles: an Interpretation. W. E. Caldwell (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, October).
- The Political Activities and the Name of Cratesipolis. Grace H. Macurdy (*American Journal of Philology*, July, August, September).
- Expropriation in Roman Law. J. W. Jones (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).
- The Organ in the Early Middle Ages. Helen R. Bittermann (*Speculum*, October).
- Medieval German Art: a Beginner's Notes. E. F. Jacob (*History*, October).
- Medieval Prints in Modern Reproduction. J. M. Lenhart (*Catholic Historical Review*, October).
- St. Francis of Assisi. Alice M. Cooke (*Church Quarterly Review*, October).
- Acta Episcoporum. F. M. Stenton (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
- Captain William Dampier: Pirate and Hydrographer, 1651-1715. L. E. Elliott (*Pan-American Magazine*, September).
- Bernadotte or Bonaparte? Erik Achorn (*Journal of Modern History*, September).
- A Decade of Studies in the French Revolution. H. E. Bourne (*Journal of Modern History*, June).
- The Electoral System in France during the Bourbon Restoration, 1815-1830. F. B. Artz (*Journal of Modern History*, June).
- Some Recent Works on Spain and Portugal. W. J. Entwistle (*History*, October).
- Valeriano Weyler, Spain's Veteran Soldier-Statesman. Pierre Crabites (*Current History*, November).
- America and Medieval Europe. Lewis Spence (*Open Court*, September). The Norse settlement.
- An Abortive German-American-Chinese Entente of 1907-8. Luella J. Hall (*Journal of Modern History*, June).
- The Kaiser after Twenty-five Years. Brig.-Gen. W. H. Waters (*Quarterly Review*, October).
- The Soviet Red Army. Alexander Smirnoff (*Army Quarterly*, October).
- The Russo-Chinese Conflict in Manchuria. K. K. Kawakami (*Foreign Affairs*, October).
- The Shadow of India in Russian History. Prince A. Lobanov-Rostovsky (*History*, October).
- Factors in the Chinese Situation. S. P. Duggan (*Political Science Quarterly*, September).
- The Central Sahara and Sudan in the Twelfth Century. A. D. H. R. Palmer (*Journal of the African Society*, July).
- Recent Books on the History of the Near East. W. L. Langer (*Journal of Modern History*, September).

BRITISH EMPIRE

- Scutage. Helen M. Chew (*History*, October). Historical revision.
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- The Appropriation of English Parish Churches during the Reign of Edward III. K. L. Wood-Legh (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
- The Black Death in the Hundred of Farnham. E. Robo (*English Historical Review*, October).
- Capitalism and the Decline of the English Gilds. T. H. Marshall (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
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Report of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, A. C. Krey, Chairman.

The Possibility of Testing Values in the Social Studies, Truman L. Kelley, Psychologist-Advisor on Measurements to the Investigation.

Discussion led by

Harry J. Carman, Columbia University; O. M. Dickerson, Colorado State Teachers College; Lawrence B. Packard, Amherst College; and Richard H. Shryock, Duke University.

Luncheon Session

Are There Regional Differences in the Teaching of the Social Studies? Edgar Dawson, Hunter College.

General Discussion.

- Fourteenth Century. T. F. Tout (*Speculum*, October).
 Some Aspects of the English Reformation, 1550-1660. Edgar Vincent (*Church Quarterly Review*, October).
 The Sheriff as a Member of the House of Commons from Elizabeth to Cromwell. Harold Hulme (*Journal of Modern History*, September).
 Wife-Selling in England. Courtney Kenny (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).
 Louis XIV's Financial Relations with Charles II and the English Parliament. C. L. Grose (*Journal of Modern History*, June).
 The First Complete Exploration of Hudson Bay. I. M. Harper (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
 The House of Lords, 1689-1783, II. Sir W. S. Holdsworth (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).
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 Anglo-Russian Relations, 1815-1840. C. W. Crawley (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
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 The British Friends of the Italian Risorgimento. Guiseppe Gallavresi (*Contemporary Review*, September).
 Before Trafalgar. Rhys Raworth (*Empire Review*, October).
 Examples of Wellington's Strategy: the Vitoria Campaign, 1813. Maj.-Gen. W. D. Bird (*Army Quarterly*, October).
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 Duel between Castlereagh and Canning in 1809. C. K. Webster and Harold Temperley (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
 Cardinal Gasquet the Historian. Adrian Morey (*Catholic Historical Review*, October).
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 Party Government in the Irish Free State. A. E. Malone (*Political Science Quarterly*, September).
 Early Irish Emigration to the West Indies, 1612-1643. Aubrey Gwynn, S. J. (*Studies*, September).
 British West India Commerce as a Factor in the Napoleonic War. J. Holland Rose (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, III, 1).
 When Annexation was in Power. A. B. MacRae (*Dalhousie Review*, October). Proposals to annex Canada to the United States.
 The Fate of Titles in Canada. D. W. Thomson (*Canadian Historical Review*, September).
 A Canadian Pioneer: Spanish John. A. G. Morice (*Canadian Historical Review*, September).
 Malta as a Centre of Historical Research. F. W. Ryan (*Irish Rosary*, October).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The American Angle of the World War. D. P. Myers (*Journal of Modern History*, July).
 The German Declaration of War on France: the Question of Telegram Mutilations. H. E. Barnes (*American Historical Review*, October).
 The Potsdam Conference. Raymond Turner (*Current History*, November). "New evidence corroborating Ambassador Morgenthau's Account."
 Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. *Army Quarterly*, October).
 The Battle of Sarrebourg-Vosges, August, 1914. A. F. P. C. and F. A. S. C. (*Army Quarterly*, October).
 The German Official History of the Autumn of 1914. (*Army Quarterly*, October).
 With the Marines at Antwerp: a Memory of 1914. Adrian Keith-Falconer (*Army Quarterly*, October).
 More Marne Through German Spectacles. (*Army Quarterly*, October).
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- The Twenty-second Annual Meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. A. H. Hirsch (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September).
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- How America Got Its Name. A. C. Baxter (*Dalhousie Review*, October). Not from Amerigo Vespucci, but from Richard Ameryk.
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- American Privateers in French Ports, 1776-1778. Ruth Y. Johnston (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, October).
- New Sources on the Sullivan-Clinton Campaign of 1779. A. C. Flick (*Quarterly Journal of the New York State Historical Association*, July).
- Ethan Allen, an Interpretation. C. W. Rife (*New England Quarterly*, October).
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- Washington and American Union. John Corbin (*Scribner's*, November).
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- Transylvania. Archibald Henderson (*Century*, Autumn).
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JANUARY-DECEMBER, 1929

- Activities, in the classroom, 218.
 A-D-U Tests and Examinations, 331.
 Aims, in the Social Studies, 115; of instruction, see *Objectives*.
 Alliances, European, 1871-1914, 284.
 American Historical Association, report of forty-third meeting, 57; officers and committees, 61; investigation of teaching, 296; forty-fourth meeting, 404.
 American History, informational tests in, 12; for grade seven, 17.
 Armistice Day, program for, 294.
 Barnard, J. L., Development of the World History Course, 395.
 Beard, C. A., The Trend in the Social Studies, 369.
 Benjamin, G. G., Recent Documents and Literature on the Outbreak of the World War, 210.
 Bennett, H. A., New Approach to the Study of the Constitution, 337.
 Book Reviews (see list at end of subject index), 38, 93, 140, 190, 245, 300, 348, 407.
 Boyer, P. A., Philadelphia Survey Test in United States History, 17.
 Branom, M. E., Recent Tendencies in the Field of Geography, 399.
 Brebner, B., The Eleventh Year of Soviet Russia, 161; editor of Book Review section, 348, 407; book review by, 41, 42; book review by, 191.
 Broome, E. C., Philadelphia Survey Test in United States History, 17.
 Brown, A. W., Objectives of Civics Instruction, 341.
 Brown, H. S., Study of Methods Used in the Teaching of History, 184.
 By-Products of history teaching, 137.
 Carman, H. J., editor of Book Review section, 38, 93, 140, 190, 245, 300, 348, 407; Significant Contributions of Germany to World History, 327.
 Carter, T., Thanksgiving Day Play, 343.
 Citizenship, training in, 37.
 Civics, aims in, 116; in elementary schools, 272; vocational, daily assignment sheet, 292; objectives of instruction in, 341; twenty years of, 375.
 Clark, M. E., Relations with Our World Neighbors, 81.
 Classroom, activities in the, 218.
 Clogston, E. B., Aims for the Social Studies, 115.
 Clough, S. B., book review by, 142, 193.
 Clubs, social science, 226.
 Colleges, Teaching for Peace in, 79; economics in junior, 113; historical research in, 280; teaching freshmen to study history, 282; social studies in, 1909-1929, 319.
 Committee, proposals, 1908-1921, 374; summary of reports, 391; of Seven, Thirty Years After, 64; of Eight, influence of report, 269; on History and Other Social Studies in the Schools, 60, 63, 296.
 Constitution, new approach to the study of, 337.
 Content, *vs.* Vocabulary in Junior High School Social Studies, 30.
 Contract Plan, 244.
 Correlation of School and University Teaching [in England], 405.
 Coulomb, C. A., Recent Historical Publications, 44, 98, 148, 198, 256, 307, 362, 413; editor of November and December numbers, 369.
 Courses of Study, in East Orange, N. J., 138; in Virginia, 190, 239; Cincinnati, O., 244; in history for children under eleven [in England], 405.
 Curriculum Construction, 37; making recent, 270; experimentation in recent, 390. See also *Courses of Study*.
 Current Events, instruction in, 189.
 Dakin, W. S., Is the Emphasis on Minimum Essentials in the Social Studies Worth While?, 117.
 Dalton plan, compared with older methods, 298.
 Dawson, E., Efforts toward Reorganization, 372; book review by, 358.
 Democracy, Problems of American, new type of course, 36. See *Problems of Democracy*.
 Dever, M., World Relations as a Subject in the curriculum, 84.
 Differences, Meeting Individual, 87.
 Dowell, E. S., Social Science Club, 226.
 Duggan, S. P., Fascist Conception of Education, 224.
 Early Plans for World Peace, 321.
 East Orange, N. J., course of study, 138.
 Economics, in junior college, objectives in, 113; how to study, 120; new viewpoint in teaching, 383.
 Education, Fascist Conception of, 224.
 Efforts toward Reorganization, 372.
 Elementary School, pupil exercises in, 136; content of social studies, 137; social studies in, 1909-1929, 269.
 Ellis, E., book review by, 146.
 Eshelman, L. W., book review by, 350.
 Essentials, minimum, in social studies, 117.
 European Alliances and International Relations, 1871-1914, 284.
 Evans, J. C., Some By-Products of the Teaching of History, 137.
 Everett, S., Objective Tests the Best Discoverer of Pupil Attitudes, 335.
 Examinations, see *Tests*.
 Exercises, for pupils in elementary history textbooks, 136.
 Extra-Curricular Activity, social science club, 226.
 Far Eastern History in the World History Course, 109.
 Fascist Conception of Education, 224.
 Fiction, historical, as aid to teaching, 396.
 Films, Historical, see *Photoplay; Visual Instruction*.
 Fisher, E. J., Stability of the New Turkish Republic, 209.
 Fitzpatrick, J. C., George Washington as Santa Claus Again, 68.
 Floyd, O. R., Validity of Tests in the Social Studies, 10.
 Flügel, F., book review by, 409.
 Freshman, teaching history to college, 282; college course, 319.
 Fusion Courses, see *Unified Courses*.
 Gambrell, J. M., book review by, 38.
 Geneva School of International Relations, 245.
 Geography, economic, 138; recent tendencies, 399.
 German History Textbooks, nationalism in, 273.
 Germany, contributions to world history, 327.
 Gerson, A. J., Social Studies in the Grades, 1909-1929.
 Glick, A., Visual Instruction and the History Laboratory, 124.
 Goodman, N. G., book review by, 353.
 Graduation, requirements for high school in social studies, 189.
 Hackett, R. C., Teaching the Alliances and International Relations, 1871-1914, 284.
 Hall, C. R., book review by, 250.
 Hamilton, M. W., book review by, 351.
 Hansen, S. T., Educational Policies of Prominent Peace and Religious Organizations, 75.
 Harvard Teachers' Association, 244.
 Hefley, Sue, Test in Modern World History, 27.
 Hicks, C. R., Teaching College Freshmen to Study History, 282.
 High Schools, sociology in, 402.
 Hill, H. C., The Use of Tests in Teaching the Social Studies, 7; Twenty years of Civics, 375.
 Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 46, 149, 199, 258, 307, 359, 409.
 Historical Research in Colleges, 280.
 Hotchkiss, G. E., History of Sociology in the High School, 402.
 Individual Differences, Meeting, 87.
 Informational Tests in American History, 12.
 International Attitudes in the Secondary Schools, 71.
 International Relations, in the schools, 71-86, 89.
 Iowa Social Science Teachers, 93, 140; trends in social science in high schools, 298.
 Issues, in the social studies, 188.
 Jackson, N. L., Inter-High School Model Assembly of the League of Nations, 34.
 Jenks, L. H., book review by, 145.
 Junior College, objectives in economics in, 113; growth of, 320.
 Junior High Schools, history made real in, 118; recent trends in social studies in, 138; photoplay in, 169; chart of unified courses for, 393.

- Kenney, M. E., Armistice Day Program Stressing World Peace, 294.
- Kepner, T., Vocabulary *vs.* Content in Junior High School Social Studies, 30.
- Kimmel, W. G., Trends in the Teaching of History, 180; Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, 36, 89, 136, 188, 243, 296, 345, 404.
- Kinnerman, J. A., The School Administrator Sets Standards in History, 21.
- Knowlton, D. C., Improving the Quality of Instruction in History with the Aid of the Photoplay, 167, 229.
- Koch, G. A., book review by, 43.
- Kraus, M., book review by, 43, 146.
- Krey, A. C., Thirty Years after the Committee of Seven, 64; Social Studies in the Colleges, 1909-1929, 319.
- Kurrie, M. L., Quinine Still Has Its Uses in History Classes, 225.
- Laboratory, history, and visual instruction, 124; equipment in civics, 379.
- Langsam, W. C., book review by, 96, 192, 251, 357, 408.
- Latourette, K. S., Far Eastern History in the World History Course, 109.
- League of Nations, Model assembly of, 34.
- Lutz, P. E., Nationalism in German History Textbooks after the War, 273.
- Lyon, L. S., New Viewpoint in Economics Teaching, 383.
- Maps, decorative, 93; equipment for history classes, 244.
- Mason, E., A-D-U Tests and Examinations, 331.
- McGoldrick, J., book review by, 43.
- McKeon, R., book review by, 354.
- Men, mentioned in junior high school textbooks, 243.
- Methods, in Teaching History, trends in, 180, 184, 188; in Social Studies, things to do in the classroom, 218; in history classes, old and new, 216, 225; comparison of Dalton plan and older methods, 298.
- Middle States Association of History Teachers, 242.
- Military Instruction, in civil institutions, 243.
- Minimum Essentials, in social studies, 117.
- Model Assembly of the League of Nations, 34.
- Modern World History, test in, 27.
- Moore, O., book review by, 141.
- Morgan, W. T., book review by, 40.
- National Council for the Social studies, program of Cleveland meeting, 50; notice to, 255; announcement, 306; program for meeting of December, 1929, 404, 410.
- Nationalism, in German textbooks since the war, 273; in American histories of the nineteenth century, 297.
- New Approach to the Study of the Constitution, 337.
- Nichols, R. F., book review by, 42, 144; Historical Research in Colleges, 280.
- Notes on Periodical Literature, 347, 406.
- Novels, Historical, as aid to teaching, 396.
- Objective Tests in determining pupil attitudes, 335.
- Objectives, in junior college economics, 113; in the social studies, 115; in teaching history, 180; in United States History, 189; criticism of, 217; of civics instruction, 341.
- Odegard, P. H., book review by, 304.
- Ohio, history teachers in, 136, 298.
- Patriotic and Fraternal Organizations, educational policies of, 243.
- Peace, teaching of, in schools and colleges, 71-86; Organizations, educational policy of, 75. See *World Peace*.
- Peardon, T. P., book review by, 252, 301, 348.
- Periodicals, Notes on, 347, 406; lists of historical articles, 46, 149, 199, 258, 307, 359, 409.
- Persinger, C. E., Internationalism in the '60s, 324.
- Philadelphia, survey test in United States history, 17.
- Photoplay, improving the quality of instruction by, 167, 229.
- Pierce, B. L., Propaganda in Teaching the Social Studies, 387.
- Pingrey, J. L., book review by, 96, 254.
- Play, for Thanksgiving Day, 343.
- Political Science, in schools and universities [in England], 406.
- Prehistory, the teaching of, 89.
- Problems of Democracy, thirteen years of, 380.
- Propaganda, in the schools, peace and religious organizations, 75; public utilities, 371; in general, 387-389.
- Publications, Recent Historical, listed by C. A. Coulomb, 44, 98, 148, 198, 256, 307, 362, 413.
- Quinine Still Has Its Uses in History Classes, 225.
- Radicalism in American History Textbooks, 296.
- Raymond, I. W., book review by, 97, 248, 349.
- Real, making history, 118.
- Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, 36, 89, 136, 188, 243, 296, 345, 404.
- Recent Historical Publications, lists of, 44, 98, 148, 198, 256, 307, 362, 413.
- Red Cross, origin of, 325.
- Reference Books, list of for high schools, 239.
- Regier, C. C., Teaching for Peace in College, 79.
- Religious Organizations, educational policy of, 75.
- Reorganization, efforts toward, 372.
- Research, historical in colleges, 280.
- Retention of American History in Junior High School, 36, 92.
- Reviews of books (see list at end of subject index), 38, 93, 140, 190, 245, 300, 348, 407.
- Richards, G. B., Notes on Periodical Literature, 347, 406.
- Riley, E. B., Teaching Pupils How to Study Economics, 120.
- Roorbach, A. O., Historical Novel as an Aid to the Teaching of Social Studies, 396.
- Russia, eleventh year of soviet, 161.
- School Administrator, sets standards in history, 24.
- Senior High Schools, social studies in, 216; problems of democracy in, 380.
- Shields, H. G., Objectives in Junior College Economics, 113.
- Simmons, M. L., Junior High School History Made Real, 118.
- Slappey, G. H., Daily Assignment Sheet in Vocational Civics, 292.
- Social Studies, Recent Happenings in the, 36, 89, 136, 188, 243, 296, 345, 404; tests in, 7-33; distribution of students in, in Oregon, 38; aims in the teaching, 115; minimum essentials, 117; requirements for graduation in high schools, 189; in the grades, 1909-1929, 269; in colleges, 1909-1929, 319; in commercial schools, 346; twenty years of the teaching of, 269, 319, 369-404; of civics, 375; propaganda in teaching, 75, 371, 387-389; experimentation in recent curricula, 390.
- Socialized Recitation, 244.
- Sociology, in the high school, 402.
- Source Method, in history teaching, 189.
- Soviet Russia, eleventh year of, 161.
- Squires, D., book review by, 146.
- Standards in History, set by school administrator, 24.
- Stock, L. F., Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, 40, 148, 199, 258, 301, 359, 409.
- Study, teaching pupils how to, 120.
- Subject-matter, in history, professional treatment of, 346.
- Supervised Study, effectiveness of, 37; work-sheets as aids to, 257.
- Supervision, of the social studies, 345.
- Swain, J. W., book review by, 248.
- Swindler, R. E., Reorganized Curriculum for Virginia High Schools, 239.
- Tansill, C. C., Early Plans for World Peace, 321.
- Teachers, of social studies and other subjects, 298; good and poor, 345.
- Tests in the Social Studies, 7-33; in England, 36; prepared by American Council on Education, 37; standard forms, 90, 92; in connection with photoplays, 115, 229; criticism of, 217; in social studies, 244; A-D-U, 331; objective in determining pupil attitudes, 335; American history in Grades VII and VIII, 346.
- Textbooks, men in, 243; women in, 243; character of for elementary schools, 271; nationalism in German, 273; radicalism in American history, 296; historical material in primary readers, 297; nationalism in American of the 19th century, 297; in problems of American democracy, 381.
- Thanksgiving Day Play, 343.
- Things to Do, in the classroom, 218.
- Thirty Years after the Committee of Seven, 64.
- Thornton, E. W., Informational Tests in American History, 12.
- Trends, recent in junior high school, 138; in the teaching of history, 180; in social science in Iowa high schools, 298; in the social studies, 369, 380.
- Tryon, R. M., Thirteen Years of Problems of American Democracy, 380.
- Tucker, H. R., book review by, 351.
- Turkish Republic, Stability of, 209.
- Twenty Years, survey of the teaching of the social studies, 269, 319, 369-404; of civics, 375.

INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XX

Unified courses, in social studies, 270; in United States history, 297; in the social studies, 298; in junior high school, chart of, 393.
Unit Organization, in history teaching, 181, 300.

Validity of Tests in the Social Studies, 10.

Van Bibber, L. C., Middle States Association meeting, 242, 252.

Virginia, course of study in social studies, 190, 239.

Visual Instruction, and the history laboratory, 124; devices for teaching governmental organization, 244. See also *Photoplay*.

Vitalizing History, list of materials for, 243.

Vocabulary, *vs.* Content in Junior High School Social Studies, 30; of civics, 89; in American history, 404.

Vocational Civics, daily assignment sheet, 292.

Wallace, W. L., book review by, 354.

Washington, George, as Santa Claus again, 68.

Wilgus, A. C., book review by, 42, 96, 144, 191, 194, 249, 303, 350, 409.

Wilson, H. E., International Attitudes in the Secondary Schools, 71; Things to do in the social science classroom, 218; Work-sheets as Aids to Supervised Study, 287; Current Curricular Experimentation in Social Studies, 390.

Women, in history textbooks, 243.

Work-sheets, as aids to supervised study, 287; daily assignment sheet in civics, 292.

World Federation of Educational Associations, 296.

World History, tests in modern, 27; Far Eastern History in, 109; aims in, 115; contributions of Germany to, 327; development of course in, 395.

World Neighbors, Relations with Our, 81.

World Peace, program for Armistice Day, 294; early plans for, 321; internationalism in the 1860s, 324; through history instruction, 346.

World Relations as a Subject in the Curriculum, 84.

World War, Recent Documents and Literature on the Outbreak of, 210.

Wuorinen, J. H., book review by, 144.

Yale Chronicles of American Photoplays, 168.

BOOK REVIEWS

Arranged Alphabetically by Authors' Names

Allen, J. W., Political Thought in the Sixteenth Century, 300.
André, M., Columbus, 248.
Andrews, G. G., A Study of Original Sources, 189.
Angell, N., The Public Mind, 195.
Ashton, B. L., Geonomic Aspects of the Illinois Waterway, 196.
Auchampaugh, P. G., James Buchanan and His Cabinet, 42.
Ault, W. O., Court Rolls of the Abbey of Ramsey, 194.

BOOK REVIEWS

Austin, F. B., A Saga of the Sea; A Saga of the Sword, 306.
Baker-Crothers, H., Virginia and the French and Indian War, 354.
Baldwin, A. M., New England Clergy and the American Revolution, 359.
Barker, E. C., Webb, W. P., and Dodd, W. E., Growth of a Nation, 252.
Barr, A. S., Characteristic Differences [between] Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies, 345.
Barton, W. E., Abraham Lincoln and Walt Whitman, 245.
Bashford, H., and Wagner, H., A Man Unafraid [Frémont], 144.
Bassett, J. S., The League of Nations, 144.
Beller, E. A., and Hall, W. P., Historical Readings in Nineteenth-Century Thought, 254.
Benes, E., My War Memoirs, 192.
Bertraud, L., Louis XIV, 98, 249.
Best, M. A., Thomas Paine, 93.
Beveridge, A. J., Abraham Lincoln, 93.
Blaisdell, D. C., European Financial Control in the Ottoman Empire, 407.
Bolton, H. E., Fray Juan Crespi, 93; History of the Americas, 96; editor, Francisco Palou's Historical Memoirs of New California, 359.
Bowers, C. G., The Tragic Era, 351.
Bowman, I., The New World, 254.
Bradford, G., D. L. Moody, 93.
Bradley, E. S., George Henry Boker, 245.
Brebner, B., New England's Outpost, 97.
Brigham, A. P., United States of America [human geography], 196.
Brokaw, W. E., Equitable Society and How to Create It, 44.
Bronfenbrenner, M. O., Role of Scientific Societies in the Seventeenth Century, 256.
Bruun, G., The Enlightened Despots, 306.
Buckle, G. E., editor, Letters of Queen Victoria, Vol. III, 409.
Buell, R. L., Europe: A History of Ten Years, 145; The Native Problem in Africa, 192.
Burr, A. R., Portrait of a Banker, James Stillman, 93.
Burton, W. H., editor, Supervision of Elementary Subjects, 404.
Busbey, L. W., Uncle Joe Cannon, 245.
Butcher, W. A., Work-Test Manual in American History, 244.
Cambridge Medieval History, Vol. V, 248.
Carter, J., Conquest: America's Painless Imperialism, 142.
Chadsey, C. E., Weinberg, L., and Miller, C. F., America in the Making, 358.
Chafee, Z., Jr., The Inquiring Mind, 306.
Charters, W. W., and Waples, D., Commonwealth Teacher Training Study, 357.
Cohen, H., editor, Proudhon's Solution of the Social Problem, 196.
Cole, T., Recognition Policy of U. S. since 1901, 196.
Collins, W. L., Citizens in the Making, 244.
Corbitt, D. L., editor, Public Papers and Letters of Cameron Morrison, 196.
Cowan, A. R., War in World History, 307.

BOOK REVIEWS

Craven, A. O., Soil Exhaustion as a Factor in the Agricultural History of Virginia and Maryland, 196.
Creel, G., Sam Houston, 93.
Cunningham, S., United Britain, 95.
Cuthbert, Father, The Capuchins, 304.
Daniels, H. G., The Rise of the German Republic, 96.
Dark, S., Twelve Bad Men, 306.
Davies, H. A., Outline History of the World, 307.
Davis, H. P., Black Democracy [Haiti], 301.
Dewey, D. R., Financial History of the United States, 196.
Dobb, M., Russian Economic Development since the Revolution, 40.
Dodd, W. E., Barker, E. C., and Webb, W. P., Growth of a Nation, 252.
Dole, C. F., My Eighty Years, 245.
Driggs, H. R., and Gillett, J. B., The Texas Ranger, 95.
Dunham, A., Political Unrest in Upper Canada, 1815-1836, 254.
Elliot, M. M., and Hartley, D., Life and Work of the People of England, 306.
Elson, H. W., Side-Lights on American History, Vol. I, 95; Vol. II, 253.
Fairgrieve, J., and Young, E., The United States (book 4 of human geography), 95.
Fay, S. B., Origins of the World War, 247.
Fitzpatrick, John C., George Washington, Colonial Traveller, 93.
Foligno, C., Latin Thought during the Middle Age, 359.
Foote, J. W., Student's Workbook in Civics, 37.
Fox, E. K., In Old California, 95.
Foy, E., and Harlow, A. F., Clowning through Life, 245.
French, A., editor, British Fusilier in Revolutionary Boston, 196.
French, W., Some Recollections of a Western Ranchman, 245.
Frothingham, P. R., All These, 44.
Gibbon, J., Personal Recollections of the Civil War, 245.
Gibbons, H. A., New Map of South America, 41.
Gillespie, J. E., A History of Europe, 348.
Gillett, J. B., and Driggs, H. R., The Texas Ranger, 95.
Greenwood, A. D., History of the People of England, Vol. III, 40.
Guilday, P., Life and Times of John England, 93.
Hall, W. P., and Beller, E. A., Historical Readings in Nineteenth-Century Thought, 254.
Hammond, G. P., Don Juan de Oñate and the Founding of New Mexico, 193.
Hansen, A. H., Business-Cycle Theory, 347.
Hare, R., Voyage of the Caroline, 148.
Harlow, A. F., and Foy, E., Clowning through Life, 245.
Harlow, V. T., Voyages of Great Pioneers, 306.
Hart, A. B., In Our Times, 253.
Hartley, D., and Elliot, M. M., Life and Work of the People of England, 306.
Hasbrouck, A., Foreign Legionaries in the Liberation of Spanish South America, 301.

INDEX TO THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOL. XX

BOOK REVIEWS

- Hastings, G. E., *Life and Works of Francis Hopkinson*, 93.
 Hayes, C. J. H., and Moon, P. T., *Ancient and Medieval History*, 348.
 Hill, H. C., *Vocational Civics*, 253.
 Hill, H. C., and Sellers, D., *My Community*, 253.
 Hillhouse, J. T., *The Grub-Street Journal*, 256.
 Hohman, E. P., *The American Whaleman*, 193.
 Holmes, N. L., *Outline Workbook for American History*, 406.
 Hughes, C. E., *Our Relations to the Nations of the Western Hemisphere*, 142.
 Hughes, R. O., *American Citizenship Charts*, 252.
 Hunter, J. A., *South American Handbook*, 1929, 350.
 Hyma, A., *A Short History of Europe*, 348.
 James, J. A., *Life of George Rogers Clark*, 93.
 Jarrett, E. B., *The Jesuit Enigma*, 304.
 Jenks, L. H., *Our Cuban Colony*, 191.
 Jennings, W. W., *Introduction to American Economic History*, 43.
Journal of Modern History, 254.
 Keith, A. B., *Responsible Government in the Dominions*, 190.
 Kelty, M. G., *Teaching American History in the Middle Grades*, 140.
 Kepner, T., *The Harvard Tests*, 252.
 Kimball, R. S., *Current Events Instruction*, 189.
 Kitson, H. D., editor, *Commercial Education in Secondary Schools*, 346.
 Knight, M. M., *Americans in Santo Domingo*, 191.
 Kraus, M., *International Aspects of American Culture*, 194.
 Krey, A. C., and Sellery, G. C., *Medieval Foundations of Western Civilization*, 144.
 Kuhnert, H., *German Commerce Yearbook*, 1928, 98.
 Lee, B., *Issues in the Social Studies*, 188.
 Lee, I., editor, *The Voyage of the Caroline*, 148.
 Lipsky, A., *John Wesley*, 146.
 Lunt, W. E., *History of England*, 193.
 Lyon, L. S., *Making a Living*, 253.
 Mackenzie, F., *diary of [Jan.-April, 1775]*, 196.
 Macleod, W. C., *The American Indian Frontier*, 42.
 Magruder, F. A., *National Governments and International Relations*, 351.
 Marcu, V., *Lenin*, 40.
 Marsh, M. A., *The Bankers in Bolivia*, 191.
 Martin, C., *Empire and Commonwealth*, 349.

BOOK REVIEWS

- Marvin, F. S., *The Modern World*, 307.
 Mathieson, W. L., *British Slavery and Its Abolition*, 251.
 Mathiez, A., *The French Revolution*, 249.
 Maurice, Sir F., *Soldier, Artist, Sportsman [General Lord Rawlinson]*, 194.
 McFee, W., *Sir Martin Frobisher*, 42.
 Means, P. A., *Bibliotheca Andina, Part one*, 195.
 Miller, C. F.; Chadsey, C. E., and Weinberg, L., *America in the Making*, 358.
 Miranda, F. de, *diary of*, 248.
 Moon, P. T., and Hayes, C. J. H., *Ancient and Medieval History*, 348.
 Morrison, Cameron [Governor of N. C., 1921-1925], *Public Papers and Letters*, 196.
 Moses, B., *Spain Overseas*, 408.
 Nevins, A., *Frémont*, 144.
 Owen, R. L., *Russian Imperial Conspiracy*, 146.
 Pactow, L. J., *Morale Scolarium of John of Garland*, 352.
 Palou, Fray Francisco, *Historical Memoirs of New California*, 359.
 Pijoan, J., *Outline History of Art*, 38.
 Pipkin, C. W., *Idea of Social Justice*, 44.
 Powell, W. A., *History of Delaware*, 196.
Problems of Peace, Third Series, 356.
 Proudhon, P. J., *Solution of the Social Problem*, 196.
 Queen Victoria, *letters of*, 409.
 Rand, E. K., *Founders of the Middle Ages*, 96.
 Randall, J. H., Jr., *Our Changing Civilization*, 303.
 Redlich, J., *Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria*, 349.
 Reinhold, P. P., *Economic, Financial, and Political State of Germany since the War*, 307.
 Renouvin, P., *Immediate Origins of the War*, 247.
 Richardson, W. H., compiler, *Public Papers and Letters of Cameron Morrison [governor of N. C. 1921-1925]*, 196.
 Rippey, J. F., *America's Policies Abroad: Mexico*.
 Robertson, W. S., editor, *Diary of Francisco de Miranda*, 248.
 Root, H. W., *The Unknown Barnum*, 245.
 Russell, F. M., *International Government of the Saar*, 44.
 Schneider, H. W., *Making the Fascist State*, 141.
 Sellers, D., and Hill, H. C., *My Community*, 253.
 Sellery, G. C., and Krey, A. C., *Medieval Foundations of Western Civilization*, 144.

BOOK REVIEWS

- Shanahan, E. J., *South America*, 41.
 Simpson, L. B., *The Encomienda in New Spain*, 409.
 Smith, E. T., *A New Approach to European History*, 406.
 Stanwood, E., *History of the Presidency*, 146.
 Stevens, G., and Vasconcelos, J., and Rippey, J. F., *America's Policies Abroad*, 142.
 Stickney, E. P., *Southern Albania in European Affairs*, 43.
 Stoddard, H. L., *As I Knew Them*, 245.
 Strawn, A., *Sails and Swords*, 248.
 Tannenbaum, F., *The Mexican Agrarian Revolution*, 350.
 Thompson, J. M., *Historical Geography of Europe, 800-1789*, 359.
 Thompson, J. W., *Feudal Germany*, 300.
 Totten, G. O., *Maya Architecture*, 301.
 Treat, P. J., *The Far East*, 250.
 Trevelyan, G. M., *History of England*, 40.
 Uhl, W. L., *Supervision of Secondary Subjects*, 345.
 Van Loon, Hendrik, *Life and Times of Pieter Stuyvesant*, 245.
 Van Wagenen, M. J., *Comparative Pupil Achievement in Rural, Town, and City Schools*, 346.
 Vasconcelos, J., and Rippey, J. F., and Stevens, G., *America's Policies Abroad: Mexico*, 142.
 Vauclair, M., *Bolívar, the Liberator*, 301.
 Vestal, S., *Kit Carson*, 245.
 Wager, P. W., *County Government in North Carolina*, 43.
 Wagner, H., and Bashford, H., *A Man Unafraid [Frémont]*, 144.
 Waples, D., and Charters, W. W., *Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*, 357.
 Warshaw, R. I., *Jay Gould*, 93.
 Webb, W. P.; Barker, E. C., and Dodd, W. E., *Growth of a Nation*, 252.
 Weinberg, L.; Chadsey, C. E., and Miller, C. F., *America in the Making*, 358.
 Whitbeck, R. H., *Economic Geography of South America*, 41.
 Williams, B. H., *Economic Foreign Policy of U. S.*, 351.
 Wingfield-Stratford, E., *History of British Civilization*, 246.
 Winkler, J. K., *W. R. Hearst*, 245.
 Wittke, C., *History of Canada*, 251.
 Wright, J. K., *Geographical Basis of European History*, 44.
 Wrong, G. M., *Rise and Fall of New France*, 354.
 Ybarra, T. R., *Bolívar*, 408.
 Young, E., and Fairgrieve, J., *The United States*, 95.

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